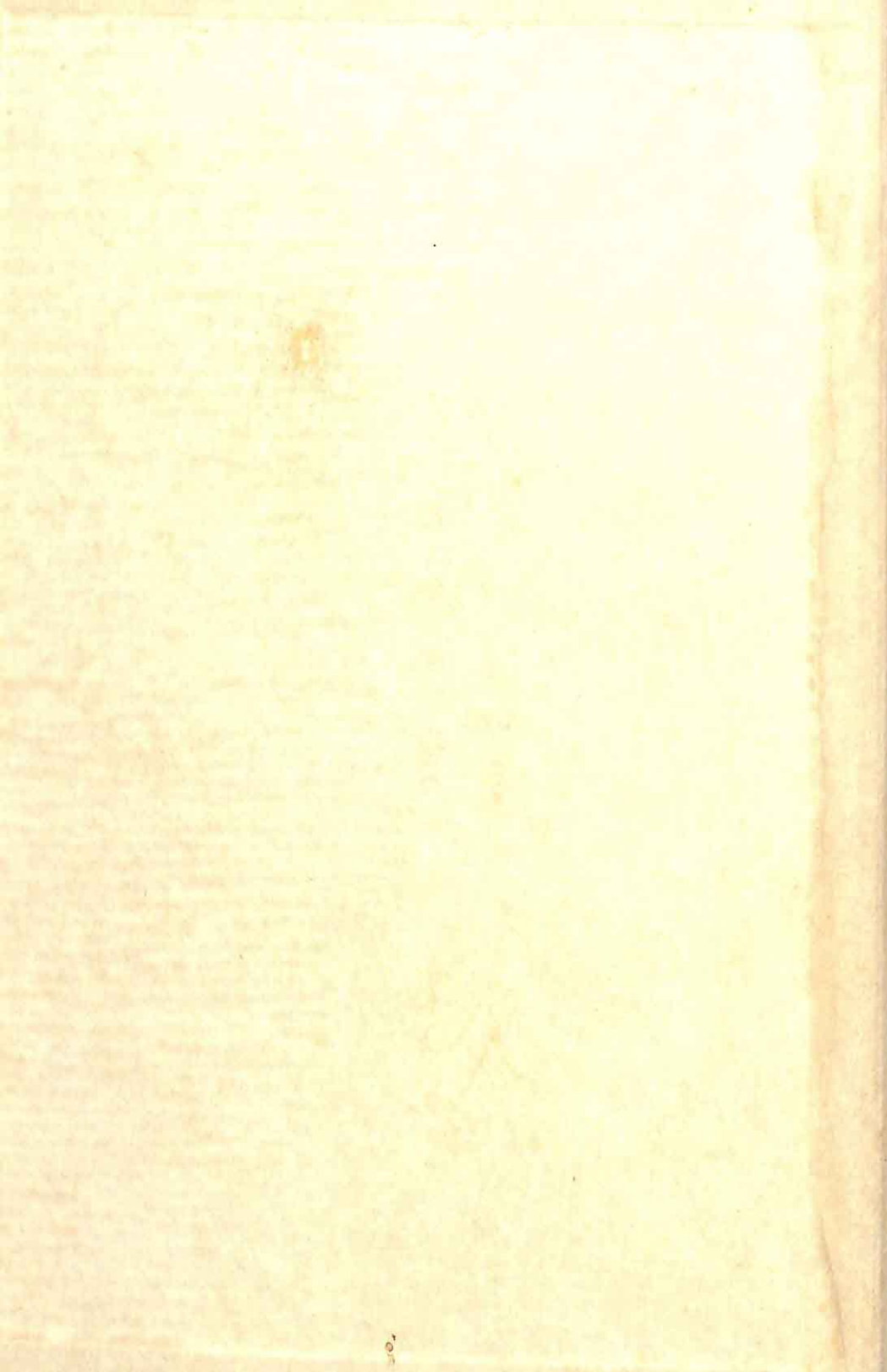




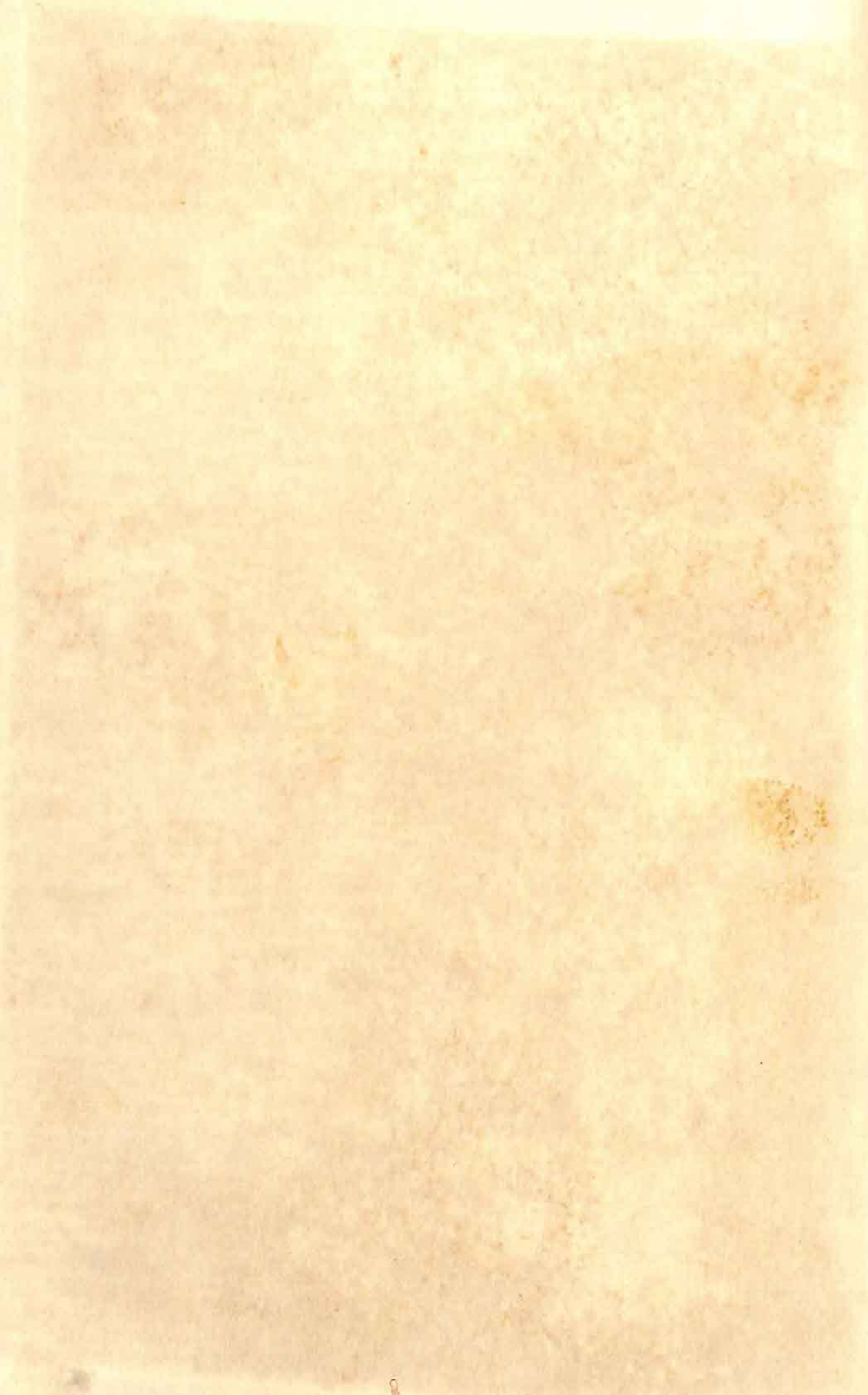
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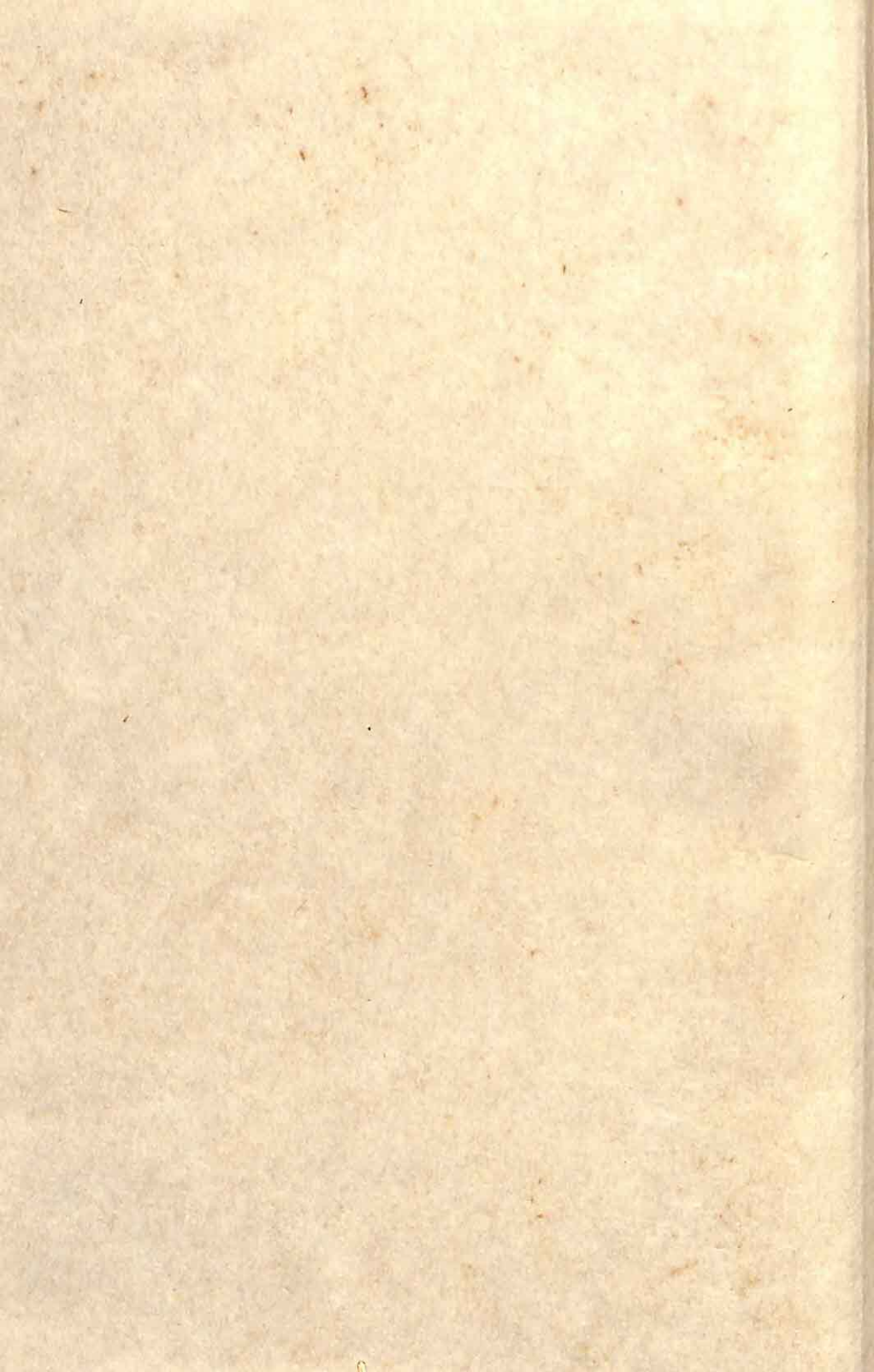


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THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF ENGLAND AND WALES



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The Educational System of England and Wales

H. C. Dent



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Preface

What I have attempted to do in this book is to provide a brief yet comprehensive description of the English educational system, prefaced by a short historical survey. Within the narrow limits of space I have allowed myself it has not been possible to go into detail about any topic, especially as I have interpreted the term 'educational system' more widely than is customary by including chapters on the independent schools and university education.

My main difficulty has been to keep pace with events. The present is a time of spectacularly rapid growth and change; within the past few months, for example, programmes for further large expansions of facilities for secondary, technical and university education, and teacher training, have been announced, and the system of financing the statutory system of public education has been drastically altered by the substitution of block grants to Local Authorities for percentage grants to Local Education Authorities. Inevitably, by the time this book is published some passages in it will be out of date.

Inevitably, also, in a book containing so many facts and figures there are bound to be inaccuracies. I shall be grateful for corrections.

I wish to express my thanks to Professor W. O. Lester Smith and Dr. S. J. Curtis, who read an early draft of the historical chapter and made most helpful suggestions; to my classes of teachers studying for the Advanced Certificate in Education of the University of Sheffield, who have so often made me realize how little I know about the English educational system; and to Mrs. E. M. Wilson and Mrs. M. Cuninghame-Green, who typed my often atrocious manuscript.

Sheffield, September 1960

H. C. DENT

Acknowledgments

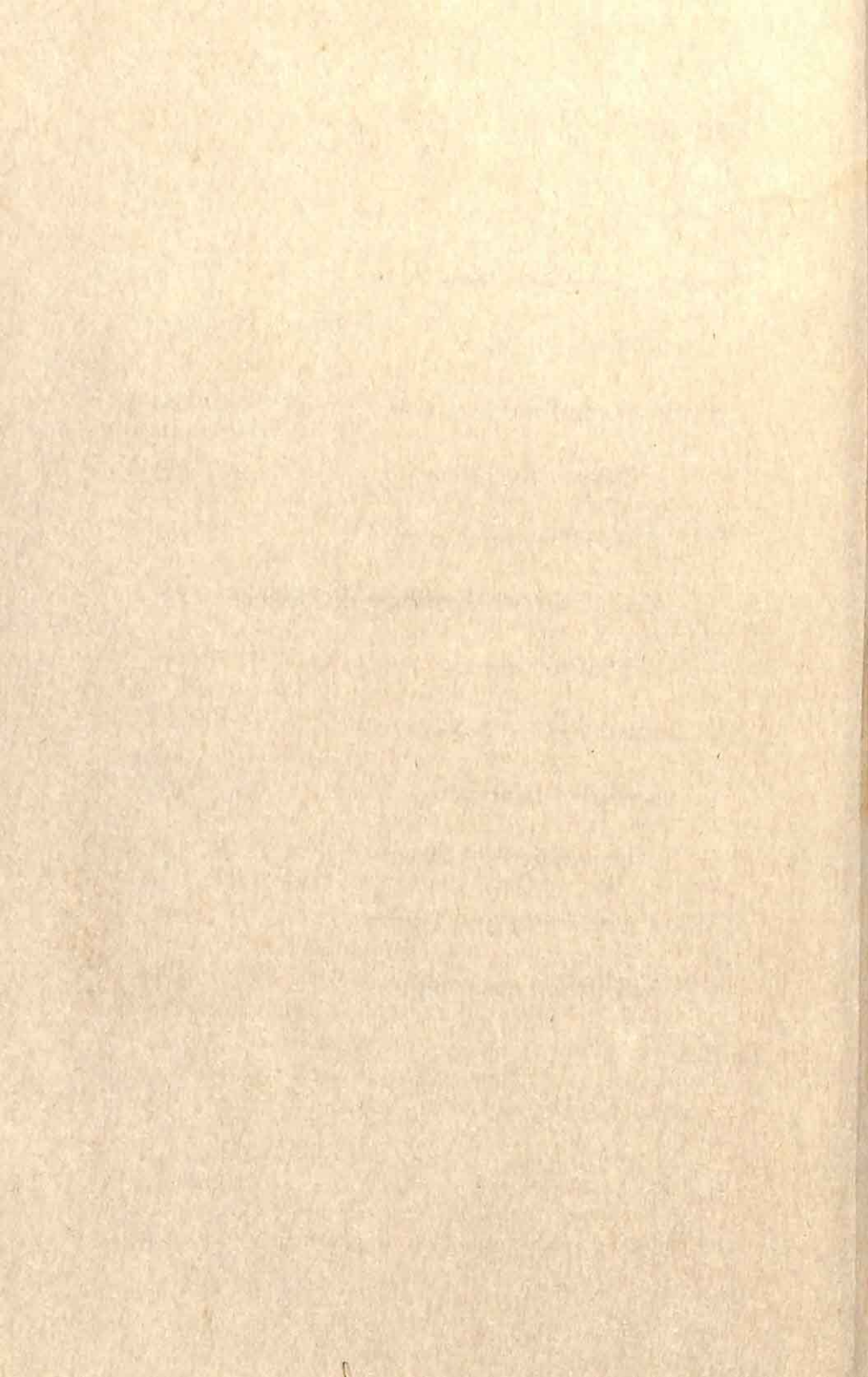
Acknowledgments are extended to the following in respect of photographs:

Roger Mayne: f.p. 96, a, b; 97

Henry Grant: f.p. 112; 113; 144, a, b; 145; 160; 161, a, b

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CHAPTER I

Genealogical Tree

THE story of English education begins with the bringing of Christianity to Kent in A.D. 597. No direct evidence exists to support this statement, but there can be little doubt that when St. Augustine established his cathedral church at Canterbury he included among its functions the teaching of converts and the training of native ministers of the Church. Such was the invariable practice of the Christian missionaries of those days; to them, religion and education were inseparable, and both equally the business of the Church.

As Christianity spread across England similar 'schools' were set up in other cathedrals, in collegiate churches, and in monasteries. In the earliest days these schools had neither buildings nor staff of their own; they were merely assemblies of pupils – of all ages – taught by the bishop himself or one of his priestly colleagues, in some convenient part of the church. But gradually the distinction was drawn (as it had long been in other parts of the Roman Empire) between 'grammar' or general education, and the simpler and more directly vocational training which was all that was required by novices aspiring to be members of church choirs and to assist as acolytes the priests in the performance of the church services. Increasingly, Grammar and Song schools tended to separate.

'Grammar', which then meant the Latin language and literature, was the first of the Seven Liberal Arts¹ of medieval

¹ These were divided into two groups. Grammar, rhetoric, and dialectic made up the *Trivium*, which was first studied, and arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music the *Quadrivium*. Mastery of the Seven Liberal Arts fitted the student to embark upon the study of philosophy and of theology, the 'queen of the sciences'.

Christian scholarship; and not merely the first, but "the foundation, gate and source of all the other liberal arts, without which such arts cannot be known, nor can anyone arrive at practising them".¹ Latin was the universal language of religion, law and government throughout Christendom, and therefore essential not only to scholars but also to all aiming at a career in the service of Church or State. It is therefore not surprising that from the start the Grammar school enjoyed a higher status, and was staffed by better paid teachers, than the Song school.

As time went on it became not infrequent for the English Grammar school to demand that its pupils should on entry be literate in their native language. To meet this demand there developed the Reading and Writing school, sometimes as a preparatory department to a Grammar or Song school, sometimes as a separate establishment.

During the later Middle Ages the Song school tended to fade out of existence altogether or to merge with the Reading and Writing school in what was called the 'Pettie' (i.e. *petite*) school, the medieval equivalent of the modern Elementary, or Primary, school. The Grammar school has had a continuous history right down to the present day. Quite a few existing schools, such as, for example, the King's School, Canterbury, St. Peter's, York, Beverley Grammar School, St. Albans, Sherborne, and Warwick, can claim, if not an uninterrupted life, at least direct descent from schools founded long before the Norman Conquest.

Before the rise of the universities the English Grammar school often undertook the teaching of rhetoric, and sometimes dialectic, as well as grammar, and in exceptional cases – as under Alcuin at York in the eighth century – grew to be university and theological college as well as school, with a curriculum covering almost the entire range of medieval learning. With the emergence of Oxford during the second half of the twelfth

¹ Foundation Deed of Winchester College, 1382, as translated by A. F. Leach in *Educational Charters and Documents* 598 to 1909. Cambridge University Press, 1911, page 321.

century and of Cambridge in the early years of the thirteenth its scope was increasingly confined to the teaching of grammar, and one of its most important functions became that of preparing able pupils for entry into the University. This function the Grammar school has ever since retained.

From the fourteenth century onwards many Grammar schools were founded with this purpose expressly in mind, being either attached to or linked by scholarships with Colleges at Oxford or Cambridge. An example of great historical importance was 'Seint Marie College at Wynchester', founded by William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, in 1382. This foundation made a crucial departure from previous practice. All previous schools – or so it is claimed – had been ancillary to other establishments: they had been established as parts of cathedrals, collegiate churches, monasteries, chantries, hospitals, or university colleges. But Winchester College, though a twin foundation with Wykeham's 'Seint Marie College of Wynchester in Oxenford' (New College, Oxford), and designed to supply this with scholars, was nevertheless created for the sole purpose of providing a school. "Thus for the first time," says its historian, A. F. Leach,¹ "a school was established as a sovereign and independent corporation, existing by and for itself, self-centred and self-governed." It was not long before other benefactors followed Wykeham's example; notable among them was Henry VI, who when he founded Eton College in 1440 modelled its statutes closely upon those of Winchester.

Some historians have seen in the terms of the foundation deed of Winchester College the origins of the English 'Public' school. Not so much, perhaps, because of the independence accorded to the College, important though this was, as because of three other conditions. Pupils were to be accepted from anywhere in England (though certain counties had priority), the College was to be largely a boarding-school, and it was to include among its boarders, in addition to the seventy 'poor

¹ Quoted from the author's *Schools of Medieval England*. Methuen, 1915, page 206.

and indigent' scholars for whom free places were provided, up to ten 'sons of noble and influential persons' who would pay fees for their tuition and their keep.

How 'noble and influential' Wykeham hoped the parents of his fee-paying boarders would be one cannot say; but he does not appear to have been successful in attracting those of highest eminence. This was simply because it was not the habit of the English aristocracy in the Middle Ages – or for long afterwards – to send their sons to school. They provided for them, in their own homes and those of their peers, an exclusive, and totally different, form of education, aimed at the attainment of skill in the arts of war and the etiquette of chivalry.

The Grammar school in medieval England was the avenue of opportunity for the able sons of parents of relatively modest means – the lesser gentry, yeoman farmers, merchants and craftsmen, and, occasionally, villeins or serfs – leading to careers in Church and State and in the learned and clerical professions. Neither poverty nor lowly status in society was an absolute bar to entry; almost all Grammar schools had, like Winchester and Eton, free places for 'poor and indigent' pupils (*pauperes et indigentes*),¹ and the poorest boy whose ability excited the interest of the parish priest or the local squire could be awarded one of these; and, later, make his way to the University by winning one of the scholarships which many schools had to offer.

Not all such parents sent their sons to Grammar school and University. For those who thought more in terms of worldly wealth there was, from the twelfth century onwards, the highly organized system of apprenticeship run by the powerful craft and merchant guilds, whereby a boy was bound by indentures to a master-craftsman, who took him into his home for an agreed number of years and taught him his trade, thus enabling him in his turn to become a master-craftsman or merchant. Many of the small gentry – and some not so small – chose this

¹ Though how needy candidates had to be to qualify for free places has been endlessly disputed. See *The Public Schools and the General Educational System* ('Fleming' Report, H.M.S.O., 1944), page 8.

medieval equivalent of technical education for their younger sons, to whom – the law of primo-geniture being absolute – they would have no goods to leave.

Modern research has shown that elementary education¹ was far more widely prevalent in medieval England than was formerly believed. Much of it was given by parish priests, who from an early date were constantly being reminded by their bishops that it was their duty to undertake it. Much was given in the numerous chantries founded during the later Middle Ages. The first duty of a chantry priest was to say Masses for the souls of the founder and such other persons as were specified in the foundation deed. But as this was rarely a full-time occupation, the priest was frequently instructed also to 'kepe a grammar skole' or to teach the children of the district 'to rede and sing'. By the time of the Reformation there were over 2,000 chantries in England. How many undertook teaching is unknown; perhaps in most cases only when the priest was sufficiently interested to take the initiative. According to the Chantry Certificates of Edward VI the majority of the fully organized chantry schools were Grammar schools, but there was also an appreciable number of 'pettie' schools. In the 'pettie' school girls as well as boys were often to be found. But girls were never admitted into the Grammar school, nor was any comparable type of school provided for them, though a few received some sort of secondary education in nunneries. Girls' education, beyond the rudiments, was normally undertaken in the home, and consisted of training in domestic duties.

English education was born in the Church; and for close on a thousand years, from the coming of St. Augustine to the Reformation, the Church controlled absolutely, and was almost exclusively the provider of, all organized education (except apprentice training), from the group of village children taught by the parish or chantry priest to the societies of scholars in the Colleges of Oxford and Cambridge. Every teacher had to be licensed by the bishop, who also – in the early days personally, and later through his deputies the chancellor and the precentor

¹ That is, education having as its aim literacy in English.

– appointed all Grammar and Song school headmasters. With but rare exceptions all teachers were clerks in the orders of the Church. The Church, in fact, claimed a monopoly in education, and though this was, from the twelfth century onwards, occasionally disputed, in practice it was most effectively maintained.

The main contribution made by the laity – an increasingly valuable one – was in the founding and endowment of schools and colleges. The fifteenth century was particularly notable for this; then, royalty, nobility, commoners, and the craft and merchant guilds, all played important parts. By the end of this century England possessed an unknown, but probably considerable, number of endowed ‘pettie’ schools; between 300 and 400 endowed Grammar schools; and some twenty-five Colleges and Halls at Oxford and Cambridge. Not until the twentieth century was the country again to be so well supplied – in proportion to its population – with the means of education.

But in the sixteenth century, within a decade, two shattering blows were dealt at the educational system which had been built up over so many hundreds of years. The English Reformation was disastrous to English education. In effecting it, Henry VIII first dissolved the monasteries, thus putting an end to the schools they provided, and in 1545 and 1547 he and his son Edward VI respectively passed Acts of Parliament abolishing the chantries and confiscating their endowments. By these measures the country was deprived of practically all its elementary and a great many Grammar schools, and its Universities suffered a severe diminution of their resources. Some of the damage, admittedly, was made good by Henry and Edward, and later by Mary Tudor and Elizabeth, who refounded a considerable number of Grammar schools and founded some new ones. Town councils, merchant guilds and private citizens repaired during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries other losses. But the total loss was far greater than the gain; in particular, any systematic provision of elementary education virtually ceased for a century and a half.

During the Cromwellian interlude it looked for a moment a

though a fresh start were to be made. Educational reform was in the air, and proposals were advanced for establishing a national system of elementary education. These, alas, came to nothing, except in Wales, where, under an Act for the Better Propagation of the Gospel, passed in 1650, nearly sixty free schools were established and maintained out of public funds. But they lasted only until the Restoration; and more than two centuries were to elapse before they had any successors.

During the eighteenth century Grammar school and University education fell to a very low ebb. Schools and Colleges alike resisted all attempts to induce them to move with the times, and clung persistently to outdated curricula and methods. Consequently, they became more and more incapable of performing any useful service to society, which naturally turned elsewhere for aid in meeting its educational needs. By the end of the century many Grammar schools had been closed and many more had but a handful of pupils; and the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge had largely become exclusive clubs for slothful dons who did not teach and wealthy young aristocrats who did not even pretend to study.

This unhappy situation was part cause and part effect of the fact that during this century both class and denominational distinctions hardened. England became riven into Disraeli's 'Two Nations', with on the one side of the great divide the tiny *élite* of the rich and privileged, and on the other the vast mass of the 'lower orders', the 'labouring poor', together with, for a while, the rising class of manufacturers and merchants that was being born out of the fast-developing Industrial Revolution. The line of denominational cleavage, while not identical, was not greatly different; the *élite*, almost to a man, adhered to the Established Church, while the strength of Nonconformity – immensely reinforced by John Wesley's half-century of fervent evangelism – lay with the lower orders and, most importantly, the new middle class that industry was throwing up.

These last, rejecting with contempt the arid and unrealistic curricula of the Grammar schools and Universities (from which

latter many of them were in any case precluded by their religious affiliations), began to patronize private schools offering more modern – and more efficient – education for their children, and ‘Dissenting Academies’ which provided courses of study of University calibre not reserved, as were Oxford and Cambridge, for members of the Established Church. At much the same time, perhaps by way of reaction, the *élite* began to send its sons to a small group of expensive boarding-schools – Eton, Harrow and Winchester were among them – which were coming to be known as the ‘great’ or ‘public’ schools. For the children of the lower orders no education which went beyond the merest rudiments of literacy was considered either necessary or appropriate. Much public opinion, indeed, among both the *élite* and the industrialists would have denied them even this meagre modicum of instruction, believing that any education at all would render them dissatisfied with their lowly lot, and thus cause them to become a menace to the stability of society.

Yet it was during this period of rigid social stratification and denominational dissension that the foundations were laid for today’s statutory system of public education. One good which resulted from the existence of an immensely wealthy *élite* alongside a poverty-stricken populace was the realization by the former (thanks largely to the teaching of their Church) that their possession of great riches imposed upon them a moral obligation to contribute in charity to the well-being of the latter; and not only to their material but also, and even more importantly, to their spiritual well-being. The first step towards this was to enable the poor to understand ‘the principles of the Christian religion’; and that meant teaching the poor to read.

Towards the close of the seventeenth century many societies sprang up to further this end, and in 1698 a decision that was to prove of fundamental importance was taken when a newly-formed Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge resolved, at its first meeting, “to further and promote that good design of erecting Catechetical schools in each parish in and about London.” The design prospered exceedingly: the Society,

which worked by prompting parishes to provide by subscriptions their own schools, was able very shortly to extend the range of its activities beyond London, and within a very few years had covered the country with a network of schools. By 1754 it could claim to have established over 2,000. A remarkable offshoot of its enterprise was the creation in Wales by one of its local correspondents, the Reverend Griffith Jones, of a vast system of 'Circulating' schools, manned by peripatetic teachers, in which between 1730 and 1780 many thousands of children and adults learned to read.

During the second half of the eighteenth century the Charity school movement languished and died. The Industrial Revolution was sweeping children as well as adults by the score of thousands into mine, factory and workshop, there to toil for unbelievably long hours. Weekday schools kept children out of employment and were therefore bitterly opposed by the industrialists. The attention of the charitable was diverted to the provision of Sunday schools, which did not interfere with employment. These sprang up like wildfire all over the country from about 1780, thanks largely to the organizing ability of Robert Raikes, a Gloucestershire pioneer of the movement who, being a newspaper proprietor, was able to give it widespread publicity.

But one-day-a-week schools, however numerous and efficient, were quite inadequate to meet the needs of a country that was fast becoming a great industrial power. Recognition of this came almost simultaneously from several sources. In 1800 Dr. George Birkbeck began to give in Glasgow public lectures on scientific subjects to working men which were twenty years later to bear in England a wonderful harvest in the great Mechanics' Institute movement. In 1802 Sir Robert Peel attempted (without much success) to secure for child apprentices shorter working hours and a daily modicum of education by means of his Health and Morals of Apprentices Act. In 1807 Mr. Samuel Whitbread introduced into Parliament a Bill proposing a national system of Elementary schools supported from public funds. This actually got through the

Commons, but was rejected by the Lords, largely because of the unyielding opposition of the representatives of the Established Church. Meanwhile, both the Church of England and organized Nonconformity were in process of becoming committed to support of great voluntary movements aiming to provide the nation with a universal system of elementary education.

Two hitherto insuperable obstacles to the provision by private charity, on a permanent basis, of such a system were the formidable recurrent cost involved and the perennial scarcity of competent teachers. In the closing years of the eighteenth century two men, Dr. Andrew Bell, an Anglican divine, and Joseph Lancaster, a Nonconformist, almost simultaneously demonstrated that both obstacles could be overcome, that elementary education could be provided at an extremely cheap rate, and involve the employment of very few teachers, if the simple expedient were adopted of using older pupils to teach the younger. This 'monitorial' system made an immediate appeal to the ruling classes. Money poured in, and two voluntary societies (both still in existence) were founded to establish and maintain schools conducted along the lines advocated respectively by Bell and Lancaster: the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales,¹ and the British and Foreign School Society, the latter a Nonconformist body on a non-denominational basis. Within twenty years these societies had provided, entirely out of voluntary contributions, numerous schools all over the country. It was a remarkable achievement; nevertheless, even within this period of exceptional activity it became obvious to the discerning few that, despite the readiness with which the rich were subscribing to this charity – as they were also to others – and despite the devotion with which innumerable persons, both priests and laymen, were giving themselves to the work of establishing and maintaining schools, voluntary effort could

¹ Now the National Society for Promoting Religious Education in Accordance with the Principles of the Church of England.

never by itself cope with the gigantic task of schooling all the nation's children. And so the demand was pressed again and again for aid from public funds.

Finally, with success. In 1833 the House of Commons was induced to grant the sum of £20,000 to assist the National and British Societies to build schools. The grant was repeated the following year, and shortly after was increased to £30,000. In 1839 the Government created a Committee of the Privy Council to supervise the distribution and use of what had now become an annual grant, and the newly-formed Committee at once claimed the right to inspect all grant-aided schools. Such were the modest beginnings in England of State intervention in public education.

The Committee of the Privy Council on Education was singularly fortunate in its first secretary, Dr. James Kay – better known as Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth. Though he held office for only ten years he laid the foundations of a system of elementary education which lasted for a hundred. He killed the ‘monitorial’ method of instruction by training teachers – doing the job himself until the voluntary societies took it over – and encouraged the schools to take up many subjects and activities beyond the ‘3 Rs’. Not least among his great contributions was his establishment of the tradition that Her Majesty's Inspectors of schools were advisers, not dictators.

During his period of office Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth was continuously harassed by strife between the denominational bodies providing the schools, and by the determined antagonism of a large body of opinion (both within the Church of England and among the Nonconformists) which fiercely resented any form of State intervention in education. Not less difficult to contend with were the hostility of many industrialists to any extension of elementary education (which diminished their supply of cheap labour), and the governmental parsimony which demanded that any such education should be provided at the cheapest possible rate.

The confused struggle between these warring factions persisted for many years, seriously retarding and stunting the

growth and development of elementary education. Industry, aided and abetted by parents, snatched children of tender age from the schools – if, indeed, they were allowed to enter them; governmental economy scored a dreadful triumph (one only of many) when by the Revised Code of 1862 it cut down the curriculum of the Elementary schools to the bare ‘3 Rs’; denominational pride and prejudices frustrated any hope of a united voluntary effort; and all these forces hindering progress towards the national system of education which the country desperately needed were powerfully supported by the prevalent political and economic doctrine of *laissez faire*; which in more brutally simple terms meant every man for himself, with the minimum of government – and the devil take the hindmost. The story of elementary education in England and Wales between 1833 and 1870 is not one to be proud of; its most pleasing feature is the undoubted heroism of many thousands of teachers, who, with the most meagre resources and almost complete lack of public support, tamed and taught great hordes of children who otherwise would have grown up half-savage and illiterate.

The first decisive advance towards a statutory system of public education was delayed until 1870; and even then the Elementary Education Act passed in that year was a typical English compromise. This act, piloted through Parliament by W. E. Forster, in face of fierce and sustained opposition, maintained the voluntary system; but at least it empowered the Government to ‘fill the gaps’. In the districts where no voluntary schools existed, or where the provision of Elementary education was inadequate, local School Boards were to be elected, with power to provide and maintain Elementary schools out of public funds. Sectarian rivalries, which had killed many previous Bills, and threatened death to this one, were at the last moment appeased by a formula which provided that in the ‘Board’ schools “no religious catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination”¹ was to be taught. The crucially important consequence

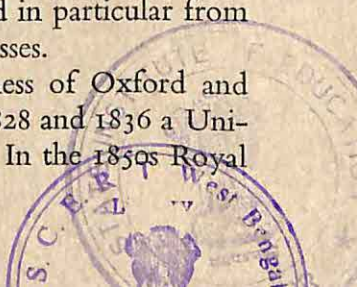
¹ Elementary Education Act, 1870, Section 14 (2).

of this compromise was that it established in England and Wales a system of 'Dual Control' of public education, with statutory and voluntary bodies sharing the responsibility for the provision and maintenance of schools. This system has persisted, though with many modifications, down to the present day.

Though it is often incorrectly stated to have done so, the 1870 Act did not make attendance at school compulsory. That would have been impossible to enforce at the time, because almost everywhere the number of children of school age was far greater than the number of school places. A remarkable spurt of building, by both the voluntary societies and the School Boards, enabled the Government to introduce in 1876 a partial measure of compulsion. But neither the 1876 Act, nor any succeeding Act of Parliament has made attendance at school absolutely compulsory; the compulsion has always been upon parents on the one hand and the local authorities on the other to ensure that between stated ages children are being efficiently educated in accordance with requirements laid down by law. Along these lines compulsion became universal in 1880. In 1891 tuition fees in public elementary schools were largely done away with by the Government's offer to pay compensatory grants to schools which gave up charging them. Total abolition of fees in elementary schools was not, however, effected until 1918.

While the denominationalists were wrangling over the control of elementary education, reform was gradually getting under way in secondary and higher education. In part this was brought about by the efforts of individual reformers, amongst whom Thomas Arnold, headmaster of Rugby School from 1829 to 1842, and George Birkbeck, founder of the Mechanics' Institutes, rank pre-eminent; in part it was the result of increasing pressure from public opinion, and in particular from the now powerful and wealthy middle classes.

Revolt against the Anglican exclusiveness of Oxford and Cambridge brought into being between 1828 and 1836 a University of London - of which more later. In the 1850s Royal



Commissions were forced upon the ancient Universities, and consequent Acts of Parliament effected radical changes in their centuries-old constitutions. In the 1860s, other Royal Commissions investigated, first, the constitutions and curricula of the nine old and famous schools which ranked as 'public' schools,¹ and secondly all the other endowed Grammar schools, nearly 800 in number. These investigations also were followed by Acts of Parliament, which remodelled the constitutions of the public schools and redistributed the endowments of many of the others, in part to make provision for the secondary education of girls, which on a substantial scale dates only from the 1870s. Education for girls at university level had begun in London in the 1840s with the founding of the Queen's and Bedford Colleges; twenty years more were to elapse before Girton College gave it a slender footing at Cambridge, and thirty before Somerville College and Lady Margaret Hall were founded at Oxford.

From the 1850s onward mounting anxiety about the increasingly successful industrial competition Great Britain was having to face from European countries,² and the well-founded belief that these countries were enabled to compete so successfully because they had built up efficient systems of vocational education, resulted in a spate of commissions of inquiry, both official and private. These provoked both Governmental and voluntary action. In the 1850s the Government established a Department of Science and Art; in the 1870s the London Livery Companies (the descendants of the medieval craft and merchant guilds) drew up plans for a national system of technical education and founded the City and Guilds of London Institute; in the 1880s the Government appointed a Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, and followed this up by passing in 1889 a Technical Instruction Act. This Act, the

¹ Charterhouse, Eton, Harrow, Merchant Taylors, Rugby, St. Paul's, Shrewsbury, Westminster, and Winchester. The Commission's report dealt only with the seven boarding-schools, excluding Merchant Taylors and St. Paul's.

² Austria, Belgium, France, Prussia, and Switzerland in particular.

first of its kind, empowered the newly-created County and County Borough Councils to spend a limited amount of public money in providing and grant-aiding vocational education. Thanks to the Act, but much more to the diversion to educational purposes of large sums from Customs and Excise and from London charities which had outlived their original purposes, the 1890s saw a rapid and substantial growth of technical colleges and evening schools providing a wide variety of vocational courses.

Liberal adult education was still left to voluntary enterprise, which was not lacking. The 1840s had seen the foundation, in Sheffield, of the first People's College, to be followed in 1854 by the famous Working Men's College (still flourishing) in north London; and in 1873 a young Cambridge don, James Stuart, started one of the country's greatest adult education movements by giving, in Derby, Leicester, and Nottingham, the first series of University Extension Lecture Courses.

But the keystone of the educational arch was still missing. Practically every inquiry, public or private, into the state of education from the 1860s onward had emphasized the urgent need to create a national system of secondary education. At long last, in 1894, a Royal Commission (the 'Bryce' Commission) was instructed to recommend how this could best be done. Its labours resulted, first, in an Act of Parliament, passed in 1899, which created a national Board of Education to supervise elementary, secondary and vocational education, and secondly in the epoch-making Education Act of 1902. This Act, passed in face of denominational controversy as bitter as that of 1870, made three fundamental changes in the law relating to public education. It made available to voluntary schools money from local rates as well as national taxes (that was what caused the controversy); it abolished the *ad hoc* School Boards and made the elected, general purpose County and County Borough Councils the local authorities for education; and it empowered these councils to provide, and grant-aid the provision of, 'education other than elementary,' thus making possible the long-desired statutory system of secondary education.

The 1902 Act paved the way for great advances, but it did not, unfortunately, create a completely articulated system of education. That was not to come until 1944. The 1902 structure was made up of two imperfectly co-ordinated parts, elementary education and 'education other than elementary', that is, all other forms of public education, including secondary education; and the local education authorities were given fundamentally different responsibilities in respect of these two parts. They were placed under a statutory *duty* to secure the provision of adequate facilities for elementary education, but were bound by no such duty in respect of 'education other than elementary'; they were merely given permissive *powers* to provide and grant-aid the provision of this. As a result, some authorities made generous provision while others did as little as possible. The country is still suffering from the disparities which resulted.

This dichotomy in the educational system was emphasized by two other factors. Pressure from vested interests had compelled the inclusion in the 1902 Act, alongside the County and County Borough Councils, of a second group of local education authorities: the Councils of all non-county (municipal) boroughs having populations exceeding 10,000 at the 1901 Census and of all urban districts (i.e. town districts organized for local government but not possessing the status of borough) with populations exceeding 20,000. These minor authorities¹ were given responsibility for elementary education only; consequently, in their areas two local authorities for education might be operating, one for elementary and the other for higher education: a situation fraught with possibilities for friction, especially if one authority was progressive and the other laggard.

The other factor was that the two parts of the educational system were not made end-on to each other. Elementary educa-

¹ They became known popularly as the 'Part III Authorities', because the provisions relating to elementary education were contained in Part III of the Education Act, 1902. During the greater part of the period 1902-44 there were 169 of them, as against 146 major authorities.

tion was compulsory up to the age of fourteen (or, given certain conditions, thirteen), and was restricted to children under sixteen. But secondary education began normally at the age of eleven, and could be started earlier. The two parts thus ran parallel for several years. This could have provided a valuable opportunity for developing varied but closely co-ordinated forms of post-primary education. Unfortunately, the times were not ripe for this; the social gulf which yawned between the public Elementary school on the one hand and the endowed and proprietary Secondary schools on the other was still too wide. What was done was to expand greatly, and systematize, the provision of scholarships enabling clever children to transfer from elementary to secondary education at about the age of eleven. In 1907 the Board of Education required all Secondary schools maintained or aided by local education authorities to reserve a given percentage (usually one-quarter) of their entry for pupils from Elementary schools awarded 'free places' or scholarships by the authority, who would pay their tuition fees.

In the early days many old-established Secondary schools resented the presence of the 'free-placers' in their midst, but the passage of time and the ability of these pupils from Elementary schools gradually wore away the prejudice against them. A more persistent, and much less happy, consequence of the free-place scheme was that, as the number of places available was usually much smaller than the number of candidates, many Elementary schools began systematically to coach and cram their abler pupils for what quickly became in many places a highly competitive examination. This practice has unfortunately not yet been completely eliminated from the schools.

The new system of secondary education was developed vigorously during the years preceding the First World War. Many endowed Grammar schools were accepted into it, as were some 'Higher Grade' and other senior Elementary schools which had been doing advanced work; and the local authorities established numerous new schools. Two criticisms are made of

the policy pursued during these years: that the curriculum of the Secondary school was assimilated too closely to the academic and literary pattern of that followed in the public and endowed Grammar schools; and that to meet the mounting demand for secondary education other parts of the educational system – notably vocational education – were starved. The criticisms are, on the whole, justified. Nevertheless, during these years there emerged two new types of post-Primary school which were later to become important elements in the structure of secondary education: the Junior Technical school, offering to pupils – mainly from Elementary schools – between the ages of twelve to thirteen and sixteen quasi-vocational courses, and the Central school – first pioneered by London and Manchester in 1911 and 1912 – a type of senior Elementary school which also offered vocationally biased courses, though these were not so strongly vocational as those of the Junior Technical school. The Central school recruited its pupils at eleven-plus and gave them a four-year course.

Concurrently with the building up of a statutory system of secondary education came the first large-scale creation of Universities in England. For over six hundred years, from the beginning of the thirteenth century to the nineteenth, the country had two only, Oxford and Cambridge (which successfully resisted occasional attempts to found others). In the fourth decade of the nineteenth century two more were founded: Durham, a collegiate University modelled on Oxford, and London. The latter, as has been noted, was intended to provide University education for Nonconformists, then still excluded from the ancient Universities. The attempt immediately provoked the foundation alongside it of a rival Church of England establishment. Neither the unsectarian 'University of London' (now University College, London) nor the Anglican King's College succeeded in gaining the coveted University charter, nor could any way be found of including their two dissimilar constitutions within the terms of a single charter. So, as a compromise, an examining body called London University was created, and given power to affiliate Colleges

wishing to take its examinations; and an examining body only the University remained until 1900.

This unsatisfactory half-solution of an apparently insoluble problem was later to produce highly important, extremely gratifying and quite unanticipated consequences. The second half of the nineteenth century saw the rise, chiefly in large industrial cities, and generally as the result of a juncture of private enterprise and civic pride, of a number of colleges offering courses of advanced study for adults, usually with a strong bias towards the natural sciences and technology. The promoters of most of these colleges had in mind their ultimate attainment of University status; and in pursuit of this aim they found in the 'external' degrees of London University (which in 1858 were made available to students anywhere) an invaluable aid. By preparing their students for these degrees they established academic standards justifying application for a charter, first as a University College and finally as a full University. The first step towards what was to become a large-scale development was taken in 1880 when Owen's College at Manchester was incorporated into a newly created federal University, the Victoria University, to which in the next few years colleges at Leeds and Liverpool also became affiliated. In 1893 three Welsh colleges, at Aberystwyth, Bangor, and Cardiff, united forces to form a federal University of Wales. Then, seven years later, a veritable spate of foundations began. In 1900 Mason College, Birmingham, was granted a charter, and became the University of Birmingham. Shortly afterwards the Manchester federation was dissolved, and in its place there arose the Victoria University of Manchester (1903) and the Universities of Liverpool (1903) and Leeds (1904). The University College of Sheffield, previously refused affiliation by Manchester, made good its claim to full University status in 1905, and the cycle of creation was closed by the granting of a University charter to the Bristol University College in 1908.

The First World War temporarily halted developments in all parts of the educational system, but was the cause of fresh advances. During its later years grave concern was felt for the

welfare of adolescents, whose labour was being exploited by unscrupulous employers, and in 1918 an Education Act was passed which was principally designed to extend to them a larger measure of educational care and guidance. The 1918 Act raised the school-leaving age to fourteen for all, and legislated for a system of compulsory part-time education to the age of eighteen for all young people who ceased full-time education before that age. The attempt to put the latter into operation ended in failure – a failure which has not yet been remedied. The part-time system was launched in 1920, but broke down within two years owing to a governmental economy drive, lack of adequate preparation, and widespread public opposition. Its meagre results were that a single school, at Rugby, continued to work under statutory regulations, and a small number of schools, chiefly in London, on a basis of voluntary attendance.

A much less publicized Section¹ of the 1918 Act, however, brought in its train momentous consequences. This Section laid upon the local education authorities a statutory duty to provide for the older and more able pupils in public Elementary schools courses of advanced and of practical instruction. This was the first time the Elementary school had been permitted officially to provide any education beyond elementary education. There was to be a swift sequel. In 1924 the Labour Government, representing a party which since the early years of the century had advocated a policy of 'secondary education for all', requested the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education to inquire into "the organization, objective, and curriculum of courses of study" suitable for children remaining at schools other than Grammar schools up to the age of fifteen. The result was the famous 'Hadow' Report (so called from the name of the Chairman of the Committee, Sir H. W. Hadow) on *The Education of the Adolescent*,² a major landmark in modern English education.

The seminal recommendation made by the Committee was

¹ Section 2(I)(a).

² H.M. Stationery Office, 1926.

that at about the age of eleven the first, or primary, stage of education should be concluded and a new stage begun, which for all children should be regarded as secondary education. There is little doubt that one strong reason for this recommendation was the quality of the advanced courses in many senior Elementary schools. To implement the recommendation the Committee proposed the division of the public elementary school into two schools: a Junior, or Primary, school for pupils up to the age of eleven, and a Senior, or Secondary, school for pupils beyond that age. The latter, they suggested, might be called the 'Modern' school. The Committee also recommended that the period of compulsory full-time education be extended to fifteen. This was not done, but 'Hadow reorganization' of the Elementary school was made national policy. The responsibility for carrying it out lay with the local education authorities, who acted with varying enthusiasm and speed. By the outbreak of the Second World War roughly two-thirds of all Elementary schools had been reorganized. In general, reorganization was much more advanced in urban than in rural areas, and the majority of the unreorganized schools were voluntary schools.

The 'Hadow' committee refused to grant the title 'Secondary' to Junior Technical and comparable schools providing vocationally biased courses, regarding them as giving not secondary but vocational education. A later report by the Consultative Committee, the 'Spens' Report (chairman, Sir W. Spens), in 1938¹ reversed this decision. It recognized that many of these schools had liberalized their curricula and were, in effect, giving a general education. So by the outbreak of the Second World War the stage was set both for acceptance of the idea of 'secondary education for all' and for its development along the three broad lines of Grammar, Modern, and Technical education.

The causes which evoked a widespread and clamant demand for radical reform of the English educational system during

¹ *Secondary Education, with Special Reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1938.

the early years of the Second World War are exceedingly complex. But almost certainly the habits and behaviour of some of the mothers and children evacuated in 1939 from slum areas was the spark that set off the conflagration, for they revealed the fact that children were still being brought up in ignorant and sordid fashion. And with true instinct public opinion realized that the key to the cure of this was better education.

By 1940 teachers and social workers were clamouring for reform. The Board of Education reacted promptly, and in 1941 sent to numerous bodies, both statutory and voluntary, a document (the 'Green Book')¹ including numerous proposals and inviting suggestions, comments, and criticisms. The response was almost overwhelming; a veritable avalanche of detailed replies poured into the Board (many being simultaneously published by their authors), and the President, Mr. R. A. Butler, and his Parliamentary Secretary, Mr. J. Chuter Ede, were for many months kept in continuous consultation with all sorts of bodies directly or indirectly concerned. It quickly became apparent that about purely educational reforms there was little substantial difference of opinion; what did take time, however, was the reaching of an agreement with the Churches about the future position of voluntary schools.

In July 1943 Mr. Butler presented to Parliament a 'White Paper', entitled *Educational Reconstruction*, which set out the Government's proposed reforms. Following discussion of these he introduced into Parliament in December 1943 a Bill which on 3rd August the following year became law as the Education Act, 1944. Unlike previous Education Bills, this one provoked little denominational or other serious controversy; there were during its passage through the Houses of Parliament clashes of opinion about a variety of matters, but no fundamental reform embodied in the Bill was challenged. This was in part due to the fact that the Government was a coalition commanding the support of all the political parties, in part to the exhaustive consultations which had preceded the intro-

¹ So called from the colour of its cover.

duction of the Bill, and in part to the great weight of public opinion behind the reforms proposed.

The 1944 Act reorganized drastically the statutory system of public education in England and Wales. The main changes it made may be summarized as follows:

1. The President of the Board of Education, with his limited power of 'superintendence' of public education, was replaced by a Minister of Education whose duty it is to "promote the education of the people of England and Wales" and to "secure the effective execution, by local authorities under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area".

2. (a) The County and County Borough Councils were made the sole local authorities for education. The 'Part III Authorities' ceased to exist, but provision was made for delegating limited powers in the counties to 'divisional executives' in charge of districts.

(b) The local education authorities were made statutorily responsible for securing adequate facilities for all forms of public education in their areas.

3. (a) The statutory system of public education was reorganized in three progressive stages: *Primary* (age two to eleven-plus), *Secondary* (twelve to nineteen), and *Further* education, this last comprising all forms of education except full-time secondary, and university education, for persons beyond 'compulsory school age'.

(b) Compulsion to receive full-time education began, as previously, at the age of five, but provision was made in the Act for raising immediately the upper limit of 'compulsory school age' from fourteen to fifteen, and later to sixteen.

(c) Tuition fees were abolished in all secondary schools maintained by local authorities.

4. Voluntary schools were given the choice of becoming 'aided' or 'controlled' schools. As 'aided' schools they would retain the right to give denominational religious instruction, to conduct denominational religious worship, and (subject to certain conditions) to appoint their teachers. In return they had

to accept responsibility for meeting half the cost of any structural improvements to their premises required by the local education authority. As 'controlled' schools they would have no financial responsibilities whatever, all these being taken over by the local education authority; but they surrendered the right to hold denominational religious worship on the school premises, and to give denominational religious instruction, except during a maximum of two school periods a week to the children of parents who desired it. In both cases the school's Board of Managers (for Primary schools) or Governors (Secondary schools) retained ownership of the school premises.

5. A daily act of corporate religious worship and regular and systematic religious instruction were made compulsory in all Primary and Secondary schools maintained by local education authorities. In all except 'aided' schools religious instruction (other than the two periods a week in 'controlled' schools) was to be in accordance with an 'Agreed Syllabus' compiled or adopted for each area by a statutory committee representative of the authority, the teachers, and the Churches concerned.

6. All independent schools were, from a date to be specified, to be registered with the Ministry of Education. After that date it would be a legal offence to open or conduct an unregistered school. The Minister was given power, subject to appeal, to require improvement of sub-standard independent schools and to close inefficient or inadequately equipped schools.

7. (a) The local education authorities were statutorily required to secure, in addition to medical inspection, free medical (including dental) treatment for all pupils between the ages of two and eighteen in maintained schools, and other maintained educational establishments.

(b) The authorities were required to provide "milk, meals and other refreshments for pupils in attendance at schools and colleges maintained by them". They were empowered to provide necessitous children with clothing, and any children with clothing for physical training. If circumstances demanded they could provide children with board and lodging.

Any independent school could make arrangements with the local education authority to participate in the School Health Service and the School Milk and Meals Service.

8. The local education authorities were instructed to have special regard to the needs of children suffering from 'any disability of mind or body'. They were statutorily required to ascertain what children in their areas required special educational treatment because of such disability, and to provide the appropriate educational treatment.

9. Both the Minister of Education and the local education authorities were empowered "for the purpose of enabling pupils to take advantage without hardship to themselves or their parents of any educational facilities available to them",

(a) to defray expenses of children attending maintained schools,

(b) to pay fees and other expenses for children attending fee-paying schools, and

(c) to grant scholarships and other awards to pupils over compulsory school age.

10. (a) The local education authorities were required to secure the provision of adequate facilities not only for formal education for persons over compulsory school age, but also facilities for 'leisure time occupation in organized cultural, training and recreative activities'.

(b) The authorities were required to provide, after a date to be specified, a compulsory system of part-time education for all young persons up to the age of eighteen not in full-time secondary education or some other officially recognized form of full- or part-time education. This part-time education was to be conducted in 'County Colleges' and to occupy the equivalent of one day a week.

11. The local education authorities were required to pay teachers in maintained schools salaries according to scales agreed by the Burnham Committee (the statutory negotiating body, representative of the teachers and their employers, the local education authorities), and approved by the Minister.

12. No woman having professional qualifications to teach

could be debarred from taking a teaching post, or be dismissed from one, for the sole reason that she was married.

The Act received the Royal Assent on 3rd August 1944. That part of it which referred to central administration came into operation at once. Those parts referring to primary, secondary, and further education (except part-time education in County Colleges) came into operation on 1st April 1945. The period of compulsory full-time education was extended to fifteen on 1st April 1947. The registration of Independent schools came into effect on 30th September 1957. Up to the time of writing (July 1960) compulsory part-time education had not been enforced.

The 1944 Act has been amended by the Education Act, 1946, the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948, the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1953, and the Education Act, 1959. But these Acts have not affected the principles on which it is based or altered its structure.

The years since 1944 have seen expansion and development of the educational system on a scale unprecedented in the country's history. By 1960 over 5,000 new Primary and Secondary schools had been built. Between 1945 and 1951 an Emergency Training Scheme added 30,000 qualified teachers to the teaching force in these schools. By 1951 the annual output of trained teachers had become double that of 1939, and it has increased yearly ever since. In 1957 the Government decided to lengthen (from 1960) the two-year training college course to three years. In 1958 it announced a programme for further expanding training college capacity by 50 per cent, and in 1959 and 1960 further expansions.

By 1960 the sharp outlines of the tripartite organization of secondary education with which the country started in 1945 had become considerably blurred: by the development in hundreds of the new Secondary Modern schools of academic and other advanced courses, by amalgamations of single-type schools into Bilateral schools offering two of the three types of education, and into Comprehensive schools, and by other

experimental forms, including the division of the secondary stage horizontally into two parts.

In Further education massive developments took place in the vocational field, culminating on the one hand in an expansion programme of £75m. over the five years 1957-62, and on the other in a reorganization of technical education, planned to take place during approximately the same period, grading colleges in four groups as district, area, and regional colleges, and colleges of advanced technology.

By mid-1960 the number of university students was more than double that of 1939 and a further large increase in numbers was being planned. Five University Colleges – Nottingham, Southampton, Exeter, Hull, and Leicester – had been made full universities, one new University College, of a novel type, the University College of North Staffordshire, at Keele, had completed ten years of life, a second, the University College of Sussex, at Brighton, was in process of being established, and two cities, Norwich and York, had been officially encouraged to go ahead with their plans to found University Colleges. Almost all the money for this vast expansion had been provided by the State. The Government's annual subsidy to the Universities was fifteen times as great as in 1939, and its grants for capital expenditure (before 1945 small and rare) were running at between £12m. and £15m. a year.

Three principal causes had been responsible for this tremendous all-round growth and development of educational facilities: the necessity to provide for a rapidly increasing school population; the demand of the emerging 'Atomic Age' for scientists and technologists on a scale never before imagined; and public realization that, as Sir Winston Churchill said in 1943, "the future belongs to the highly educated nations."

For further reading and reference

All that has been attempted here is to list a few well-known works suitable for the beginner whose interest in the history of

English education has been aroused by the brief survey presented in the preceding pages. In these works will be found numerous references to more detailed and specialized sources of information.

- Archer, R. L. *Secondary Education in the Nineteenth Century*. Cambridge University Press, 1921. (A scholarly study which links secondary with university education.)
- Armstrong, W. H. G. *Civic Universities*. Benn, 1955. (A mine of information about English scholars and learned societies as well as about universities.)
- Barnard, H. C. *A short History of English Education, 1760-1944*. University of London Press, 1949.
- Birchenough, C. *History of Elementary Education in England and Wales from 1800 to the Present Day*. University Tutorial Press, 4th edition, 1938.
- Burgess, H. J. *Enterprise in Education*. National Society and S.P.C.K., 1958. (The Story of the Work of the Church of England in Education before 1870.)
- Cardwell, D. S. L. *The Organization of Science in England*. Heinemann, 1957. (Much information about Universities and Technical Colleges between 1800 and 1918.)
- Curtis, S. J. *History of Education in Great Britain*. University Tutorial Press, 4th edition, 1957. (From the earliest times to the present day.)
- Dent, H. C. *Education in Transition (1939-44)*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 5th edition, 1948.
- Growth in English Education, 1944-52*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1954.
- Lowndes, G. A. N. *The Silent Social Revolution*. Oxford University Press, 2nd edition, 1948. (Development of the statutory system between 1895 and 1935.)
- Ogilvie, Vivian. *The English Public School*. Batsford, 1957. (As good a short history as there is.)
- Peers, Robert. *Adult Education, A Comparative Study*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1958. (Contains a good 100-page historical survey.)
- Rich, R. W. *The Training of Teachers in England and Wales during the Nineteenth Century*. Cambridge University Press, 1933. (The only substantial history of teacher training in England and Wales.)
- Robertson, Sir Charles Grant. *The British Universities*. Methuen, 2nd edition, 1944. (Very brief, but a useful introduction.)
- Simmons, Jack. *New University*. Leicester University Press, 1958. (Chapter I is an excellent short survey of the rise of the modern Universities.)
- Smith, Frank. *A History of English Elementary Education, 1760-1902*. University of London Press, 1931. (Pays particular attention to the political, social and industrial background.)

Official Publications

Consultative Committee of the Board of Education Reports, H.M.S.O.

The Education of the Adolescent, 1926

The Primary School, 1931

Nursery and Infant Schools, 1933

Secondary Education with Special Reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools, 1938.

(All these contain valuable historical surveys.)

CHAPTER 2

Bird's Eye View

This chapter, which briefly surveys the educational system of England and Wales as a whole, is intended as an introduction to the more detailed studies of the various parts contained in the following chapters.

THERE are in the United Kingdom three separate and distinct statutory systems of public education : for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland respectively. It is the British Government's policy that these three systems shall offer approximately similar educational opportunities and maintain approximately similar educational standards, but that they shall also preserve the traditions and reflect the ethos of the peoples they serve. The three systems are regulated by separate Acts of Parliament, and are separately financed and administered.

This book deals only with education in England and Wales. As Wales is the home of a people as different from the English as are the Scots, it might logically be expected to have its own educational system. This is not the case; but there is within the Ministry of Education for England and Wales a separate Welsh Department, with its own permanent Secretary and Inspectorate and a Provincial headquarters in Cardiff. Created in 1907, this Department has in recent years been granted an increasing degree of autonomy.

Ultimate responsibility for the statutory system of public education in England and Wales lies with the British Parliament. This enacts legislation determining the national policy for education and directing how the statutory system shall be controlled and administered, provides from national funds the greater part of the money for its support, and by members' questions and occasional debates maintains a general super-

vision of its working. Except that the present law requires that religious instruction shall be given in all maintained primary and secondary schools, Parliament does not lay down what subjects shall be taught; nor does it give any directions about teaching methods, or prescribe any textbooks. These matters are held to be the business of the professional educator, that is, of the teacher.

Central and local Government

The system is at present regulated by the Education Act, 1944.¹ This Act entrusts the responsibility for the 'control and direction' of the statutory system to a Minister of Education. He (or she) must be a Member of Parliament, is *ex officio* a senior Minister of the Crown, and has in recent years been usually, though not invariably, a member of the Cabinet. As the political head of the educational system the Minister is held solely and personally responsible to Parliament for its administration; but by a tradition which has become impregnably established during the present century he does not directly intervene in matters of curriculum or teaching method, though, as will become apparent in subsequent chapters, there are various means whereby he can, and does, exert influence on such matters.

The Minister is assisted in his Parliamentary and Departmental duties by a Parliamentary Secretary, also an M.P., and *ex officio* a junior Minister; and he has charge of the Ministry of Education, which is a normal Government Department staffed by Civil Servants and a corps of Her Majesty's Inspectors. The Ministry is primarily concerned with the creation, interpretation, execution, and supervision of national policy as laid down in Acts of Parliament and Regulations made under these Acts. The Ministry does not provide or maintain any

¹ As amended by the Education Act, 1946, the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948, the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1953, and The Education Act, 1959. None of these small Acts alters the principles upon which the 1944 Act is based.

schools or colleges, or employ, pay, or dismiss any teachers; these matters are the responsibility of the local education authorities. Nor does it prescribe, or in any way control, the supply, or influence the character of, text and other books used in schools or colleges.

The local education authorities are the elected councils of the administrative counties¹ and of the county boroughs – the latter being large towns which have been granted by Royal Charter the status of County Borough. There are 146 local education authorities; 129 in England and seventeen in Wales. Sixty-two are County Councils, eighty-three County Borough Councils, and one is a Joint Board for a county and a borough. These councils are not authorities for education only, but for all local government functions. Their members are therefore not necessarily expert or even knowledgeable about education; consequently, the Education Act, 1944, lays down that every local education authority must “establish such education committees as they think it expedient to establish for the efficient discharge of their functions with respect to education”; and no authority may make a policy decision about its educational service without having at least considered a report by its education committee. Every authority must also, by law, appoint a salaried Chief Education Officer. He is assisted by a paid staff of local government officers – the local equivalent of Civil Servants.

Finance

The statutory system of public education is financed by:

(a) Money voted annually by Parliament, and distributed to local education authorities. This money comes from the revenue raised by national taxation.

(b) Money voted by local education authorities, and disbursed by them. This money comes from the rates, that is, the local tax which each authority is empowered to levy within its area.

(c) Endowments, gifts (in cash or in kind), students' fees,

¹ Which are rather more numerous than the geographical counties, e.g. the three Ridings of Yorkshire are separate administrative counties.

parental contributions towards the maintenance of scholarship holders, and contributions required by law from voluntary bodies in aid of capital expenditure on buildings provided by them.

The amounts contributed from sources (a) and (b) constitute all but a relatively very small part of the total amount of the money expended on the educational system.

Up to the financial year 1958-59 (ended 31st March 1959) the respective amounts of money coming from sources (a) and (b) were calculated on a percentage basis, the central Government contributing approximately 60 per cent, and the local education authorities approximately 40 per cent. But from the year 1959-60 (beginning 1st April 1959) the Government began to make block grants to the local authorities for all purposes of local government, and from that date it became the responsibility of the local authorities to determine how much of the resources available to them should be expended on public education. Some specialised branches of the statutory system, such as higher technological education, were excluded from this arrangement and financed out of a national pool of contributions from the central government and the local authorities.

The annual estimates of expenditure made by the local authorities include both capital and current expenditure. Capital expenditure is, however, normally financed by long-term loans (usually thirty-year), and consequently only loan charges are included in the estimates.

Teachers' salaries constitute the largest item in the educational budget. All teachers serving in schools and colleges maintained by local education authorities are employed and paid by the authorities, but their rates of pay are fixed by national agreements. These agreements are made, ordinarily for a period of three years, by statutory committees, each consisting of two panels representing respectively the authorities and the teachers. There is one committee for Primary and Secondary schools (the Burnham¹ Main Committee), one for

¹ So called from the name of the first Chairman, Lord Burnham.

Further Education establishments (the Burnham Technical Committee), one for Teacher Training Colleges (the Pelham¹ Committee), and one for Farm Institutes. Agreements made by these committees have to be submitted to the Minister, who may approve or reject them, but may not alter them. When the Minister has approved an agreement all local education authorities are legally obliged to pay the rates it specifies.

The Statutory System

The statutory system of public education is organized in three progressive stages:

Primary education (age two to eleven-plus; compulsory from five).

Secondary education (age twelve to nineteen; compulsory until fifteen).

Further education (available to all persons beyond the age of compulsion).

No tuition fees may be charged for Primary and Secondary education given in schools maintained by local education authorities. As Further education is voluntary, tuition fees are charged, but these are often remitted to youthful participants.

It should be made clear that while the facilities provided within the statutory system are available to all, no one is compelled by law to make use of them. There is no legal compulsion upon parents to send their children to school; the Education Act, 1944, expressly states (Section 36) that children may be educated 'at school or otherwise'. The legal obligation upon the parent, or guardian, is to ensure that during the years of compulsion their children receive "efficient full-time education suitable to their age, ability, and aptitude". Actually, almost all children are sent to school.

The following statistics, from the Ministry of Education's Annual Report for 1959, indicate the size of the statutory system, and of each of the three stages. In January 1959, there were maintained by the local education authorities:

¹ The first Chairman was Sir Henry Pelham.

Primary and Secondary Education

SCHOOLS OR DEPARTMENTS ¹		PUPILS	TEACHERS
Nursery	454	21,746	967
Primary	21,930	4,308,194	144,450
Secondary	5,715	2,592,993	119,353
All-Age ²	1,685	338,875	12,026
Special, for Handicapped Children	582	50,482	3,814
Special (Hospital)	97	4,397	447
	30,463	6,977,812	269,031

Not maintained by local education authorities, but receiving direct grant from the Ministry of Education:

Nursery	20	799	40
Grammar	174	104,082	5,513
Special	119	8,468	809
Special (Hospital)	12	894	78

Outside the statutory system there were:

(i) Independent schools 'recognized as efficient' by the Ministry of Education.

	SCHOOLS	PUPILS	TEACHERS
Nursery	10	346	30
Primary	786	87,886	6,249
Secondary	259	69,847	5,308
Primary and Secondary	422	130,072	7,972
	1,477	288,151	19,559

(ii) Other Independent schools.

	SCHOOLS	PUPILS	TEACHERS
Nursery	188	4,147	258
Primary	1,506	83,174	4,665
Secondary	191	19,480	1,110
Primary and Secondary	889	101,105	5,482
	2,774	207,906	11,505

¹ Separate units, but not occupying the whole of a school building.

² Containing primary and secondary pupils; a decreasing group, which should soon be altogether eliminated.

Further Education

	STUDENTS ¹			TEACHERS ²
	Full time	Part time day	Evening	Full time
Major Establishments	685	105,549	492,854	782,264
Evening Institutes	8,163	—	—	1,000,950
				16,829

A handful of these establishments, such as the Royal College of Art, received direct grant from the Ministry of Education. The others were all maintained by local education authorities.

Outside these establishments about 170,000 students attended adult education courses provided by grant-aided voluntary bodies, and more than 50,000 attended short courses in maintained and direct grant residential adult education colleges.

Primary and Secondary Education

(A) PREMISES

Premises for Primary and Secondary schools are provided by :

1. *Local Education Authorities.* These schools are called *County schools*. They constitute a large and growing majority of the total number provided. In 1959 there were 18,861 County schools or departments out of the total (excluding Nursery and Special schools) of 29,330 maintained by local education authorities. County schools also contain by far the larger number of children; in 1959, 5,337,481 out of a total of 6,997,812.

2. *Non-Statutory bodies.* There were, in 1959, 10,469 maintained schools or departments provided by non-statutory bodies, the vast majority of whom have religious affiliations; 7,976 schools belonged to bodies attached to the Church of

¹ The numbers of students are of those who attended at any time during the year. Students attending both day and evening in the same establishment are counted only once.

² All types of establishments are staffed largely by part-time teachers, for whom the Ministry give no statistics.

England and 2,033 to the Roman Catholic Church. The schools provided by non-statutory bodies are called *Voluntary* schools. They fall into three categories:

(a) *Voluntary Controlled Schools*

Though these premises remain the property of the body which has provided them, the local education authority meets all the costs of the schools, both recurrent and capital. In 1959 there were 4,828 Voluntary Controlled schools or departments, containing 552,770 pupils. Of these schools 4,519, containing 463,138 pupils, were provided by the Church of England. None were provided by the Roman Catholic Church, which will not accept controlled status.

(b) *Voluntary Aided Schools*

For these the local education authority meets all recurrent expenditure, but the providing body is responsible for part of the cost of any improvement or enlargement of the buildings required by the authority, and for the maintenance of their exterior fabric. The cost of building a new Voluntary Aided school (except in substitution for an old one) has to be met entirely by the providing body.

Until 1960 the providing body's share of the cost was one-half. By the Education Act, 1959, the Minister was empowered to make from 1960 on for a limited period grants of up to 75 per cent of the cost of new Voluntary Aided Secondary schools established to provide secondary education for pupils from Primary schools in the surrounding area.

In 1959 there were 5,486 voluntary aided schools or departments, containing 963,974 pupils. They were provided as under:

Church of England	3,378 (411,555 pupils)
Roman Catholic Church	1,960 (500,743 pupils)
Other bodies	148 (51,676 pupils)

(c) *Special Agreement Schools*

This is a small group arising out of an arrangement made under the Education Act, 1936, whereby local education authorities were empowered to make grants covering 50 to 75 per cent of the cost of building Voluntary Senior Elementary

schools under the 'Hadow' reorganization. By the outbreak of the 1939-45 war few of the 509 agreements made had been carried out, and the Education Act, 1944, allowed for their revival.

By 1959 there were 91 Special Agreement schools, containing 35,477 pupils. They were distributed as under:

Church of England	25 schools	8,405 pupils
Roman Catholic Church	66 schools	27,072 pupils

(B) RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND WORSHIP

The categories of Voluntary Controlled and Voluntary Aided schools are the result of an agreement made between the State and the religious denominations concerned and embodied in the Education Act, 1944. The conditions of financial aid from the State to Voluntary schools are determined by the degree of freedom in respect of denominational religious instruction and worship accorded to a school.

The 1944 Act laid down (for the first time) that in all maintained Primary and Secondary schools each school day must (wherever practicable) commence with an act of corporate worship, and that regular and systematic religious instruction must be given. In County schools the worship must be undenominational in character, and the instruction in accordance with an Agreed Syllabus drawn up, for each local authority area, by a statutory committee representative of the local education authority, the teachers' professional associations and the religious denominations concerned in that area. In Voluntary Controlled schools the same conditions obtain, except that the schools have the right to give denominational religious instruction during not more than two school periods each week to children whose parents desire them to receive it. In Voluntary Aided schools the managers or governors have complete control of the religious education given. This is also the case in Special Agreement schools.

(C) SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Every County or Voluntary Primary school must by law

have a Board of Managers, of not fewer than six persons, every County or Voluntary Secondary school a Board of Governors, of such number as the local education authority (for County schools) or the Minister (for Voluntary schools) shall determine. For Voluntary Aided and Special Agreement schools two-thirds of the managers or governors must be 'foundation' members, that is, representative of the body which provides the school, and one-third representative of the local authority. For Voluntary Controlled schools these proportions are reversed. For County schools all the managers or governors are appointed by the authority. Two or more schools may be grouped under a single Board of Managers or Governors, and this is frequently done, especially with County schools.

The instrument of management or government for a County school is made by the local education authority, for a Voluntary school by the Minister of Education.

(D) THE PRIMARY STAGE

The Primary Stage of education is divided into Nursery education (two to five), Infant education (five to seven-plus) and Junior education (seven-plus to eleven-plus).

Nursery education is voluntary. It is given in Nursery schools, which may admit pupils from the age of two, and in Nursery classes attached to Primary schools, which may admit children from the age of three. In 1959 there were about 22,000 children in 454 maintained Nursery schools, and about 57,500 in nursery classes. All Nursery schools and classes are co-educational. The maximum number of children allowed by Regulations in a nursery class is thirty. Every maintained or aided Nursery school must be in the charge of a qualified teacher.

No formal lessons are given in Nursery schools and classes. The rooms are furnished as well-equipped nurseries, in which the children learn, under the skilled supervision of the teacher, to live and play and work happily together. Training in good personal and social habits is regarded as extremely important, and great attention is paid to physical development.

For Infant education children may be taught either in separate

schools or departments (in 1959 there were 5,640), or in a combined Infant and Junior school. In 1959 there were 11,533 Primary schools containing both Infant and Junior departments. When such full-range Primary schools are large there is usually an independent head teacher for each department, but in small schools the two departments are combined under one head. Some Infant departments today are in premises occupied also by Secondary as well as Junior departments; new building will in time eliminate this, but there is no national policy about the separation of Infant from Junior departments.

Most Infant schools and departments are co-educational. In the first year, the 'reception' class as it is called, the children are as a rule occupied with activities very similar to those in a Nursery school or class. There will be, however, in the classroom various kinds of material from which children may, as they become ready to do so, begin to acquire the rudiments of reading and number, and to learn to draw and paint, to measure and to weigh, to buy and sell, and to use cutting and other tools. Music, dance, and rhythmic movement play important parts. Teaching methods with the older infants vary considerably, some teachers introducing a good deal of formal instruction, others preferring to rely largely upon informal individual and group activities.

Between the ages of seven and eight children pass from the Infants' to the Junior department of the Primary school – sometimes moving into another school (there were 4,757 schools for Juniors only in 1959) sometimes merely transferring to another part of the same building. Some Junior schools are single-sex, but most are co-educational.

Much more class teaching takes place in the Junior than in the Infants' school, though in many schools this is largely confined, at any rate during the earlier years, to the basic subjects of English and arithmetic (or mathematics), much of the work in history, geography, scripture, nature study, art, and crafts being done in individual or group projects. Music, chiefly choral, is often a delightful mixture of the formal and informal. Most Junior schools with more than one class in each year

'stream' their pupils into classes of children as nearly equal in ability as possible. This is done partly to ease the teacher's task, partly to suit the content and pace of the instruction to the children's varied abilities, and partly to give the abler children a better chance in the selection tests by which they will be allocated to suitable forms of secondary education.

(E) SELECTION FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

All children must by law be transferred from Primary to Secondary education between the ages of ten and a half and twelve. To ensure that, so far as can be predicted, they shall receive the kind of secondary education most suited to their ability and aptitudes, they are during their last year in the Junior school put through a series of tests, popularly known as the 'Eleven-plus exam'. These tests are conducted by the local education authorities. The procedures used vary in detail, but in general are closely similar. They consist of objective tests, usually standardized, designed to measure intelligence and standards of attainment in English language and formal arithmetic. The test results are as a rule checked against reports made by the children's Primary school-teachers, and (where these are used) by cumulative records covering the whole of each child's Primary school career. Great care is taken by all authorities over 'border-zone' cases, that is, children whose test results do not give clear indication which form of secondary education would be best for them. In such cases re-testing is common, parents may be interviewed, and other means employed to reach what appears to be the soundest decision.

(F) SECONDARY EDUCATION

Throughout the years since 1944 there has been a mounting tide of opposition to the 'Eleven-plus' and the consequential segregation of children in different types of schools held in different degrees of public esteem. By 1959, though secondary education was still largely organized on the tripartite basis of Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools, the originally sharp dividing lines between these types of schools had in many

places become considerably blurred, and an increasing variety of experimental schools was being tried out with the aim of abolishing the necessity for the 'Eleven-plus', and for segregation in separate schools.

The functions of the Grammar and the Technical Secondary schools are easy to define. The Grammar school, into which pass (in the aggregate) the 20 per cent most intellectually able children, provides an academic curriculum leading to the examinations for the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.), and, for the most able pupils, to study at a University or other establishment of higher education. It is the school for the intellectual *élite*. The Secondary Technical school provides curricula biased towards some occupation or group of occupations, the most common being engineering for boys and commercial subjects for girls. National policy is that it should recruit from the same intellectual levels as the Grammar school; but it does not yet quite do so. The Secondary Technical school prepares pupils for G.C.E. and also for other more specialized external examinations. The Secondary Modern school, which came into being as a result of the Education Act, 1944, is still in an experimental stage. It has developed remarkably, and, since it caters for 75 per cent of the Secondary school population and therefore covers a huge range of ability, now includes schools of very different types. In general, however, since it is by definition the school for children of relatively modest intellectual ability, there is less concentration upon academic subjects than in the Grammar and Technical schools, and the level of attainment aimed at in these subjects is lower. In many schools much time is given, especially with the less able pupils, to the basic studies of English and mathematics, and to various handicrafts. Rapidly growing numbers of Secondary Modern schools provide, like the Secondary Technical school, vocationally biased courses, and, for a few of their more able pupils, academic courses leading to G.C.E.

These developments in the Secondary Modern School have led to a growing number of amalgamations producing 'Bilateral' schools.

A Bilateral school was officially defined¹ in 1947 as:

one which is organized to provide for any two of the three main elements of secondary education (i.e. modern, technical or grammar), organized in clearly defined sides.

A much more radical experiment is the Comprehensive school, defined at the same time as a school:

. . . which is intended to cater for all the secondary education of all the children in a given area, without an organization in three sides.²

While the first of these definitions still holds good, the second was modified by the Ministry of Education in its Annual Report for 1958, which announced a reclassification of Secondary schools. The Ministry therein stated (para. 66, page 30) that:

In areas where pupils are admitted to certain Secondary schools if they are believed to be above a locally determined standard of ability and to certain others if they are believed to be below it, the latter are classed as Modern schools, the former as Grammar. Where there is an intermediate range of schools, broadly of the 'selective central' type [i.e. having a selective entry based on rated ability] and previously classified as Modern schools, these are included among the wide variety of schools grouped together as 'other Secondary schools'. Schools are classed as Bilateral or Multilateral schools where they consist of two or three separate Grammar, Technical and Modern schools elsewhere in the same local education authority's area. Other schools for pupils of all levels of ability are classified as Comprehensive schools.

The Comprehensive school is one of the most controversial elements in English education, owing to its having from the start been a matter of party political dispute. It is advocated by the Labour party for social as much as for educational reasons,

¹ In Circular 144, dated 16th June, 1947.

² *Ibid.*

and opposed by the Conservative and Liberal parties, which see it in a threat to the existence of the Grammar school.

More recent experiments cut the secondary stage horizontally into two parts, and it seems probable that this form of organization may develop rapidly. But, as the following table shows, the total number of experimental-type Secondary schools is still relatively very small. This was the position in January 1959.

SCHOOLS		PUPILS	TEACHERS
Grammar (including Grammar-Technical)	1,252	641,044	33,539
Modern	3,808	1,595,559	68,583
Technical	264	99,224	5,081
Bilateral and Multilateral	58	37,319	1,760
Comprehensive	111	107,186	5,274
Other Secondary	222	112,661	5,116

There were also about 100,000 pupils of Secondary school age in the 1,685 'All-age' schools, which are officially ranked as Primary schools.

In addition to the maintained schools there is a small but important group of 'Direct Grant' Grammar schools: In January 1959 there were 174, containing 104,082 pupils. These schools are not maintained by local education authorities; they are grant-aided, on a *per capita* basis, by the Ministry of Education, on the condition that at least 25 per cent of their entry must consist of pupils sent by local education authorities. They are permitted to charge tuition fees, on scales agreed by the Ministry, to the others. Many have junior, or preparatory departments; these are not grant-aided.

Outside the statutory system there were in 1959 about 4,250 independent schools in England and Wales, ranging in character from small kindergartens to such famous 'public' schools as Eton and Harrow. Of these schools 1,477 had, at their own request, been inspected by H.M. Inspectors, and had been 'Recognized as Efficient' by the Ministry of Education.

No independent school may receive any grants from public funds; but local education authorities may make agreements

with independent schools whereby the schools accept pupils whose tuition fees are paid, in whole or in part, by the authority.

From 30th September 1957 all independent schools have had to be registered with the Ministry of Education in accordance with the terms of Part III of the Education Act, 1944, which came into operation on that day. It is a legal offence to open or conduct an unregistered school, and the Act gives the Minister powers to close (subject to appeal) schools inefficiently or improperly conducted or inadequately housed.

Education of Handicapped Children

Comprehensive and varied provision is made for the education of children handicapped by physical or mental defect. Great advance and improvement were made possible by the Education Act, 1944, which expanded the previous narrow limits of ascertainment and educational treatment to cover all children suffering 'from any disability of mind or body', and required the Minister to define the categories of disability, so that children might receive 'special educational treatment' appropriate to their particular needs. These are the categories:¹

Blind	Partially sighted
Deaf	Partially Deaf
Educationally subnormal	Maladjusted
Epileptic	Physically handicapped
Delicate	Aphasic (Speech Defects)

Special educational treatment for handicapped children is provided in ordinary and special classes in normal Primary and Secondary schools, and in day and boarding 'Special' schools, hospital Special schools, and pupils' homes. National policy is that where the disability is not serious education shall be in ordinary schools, where it is serious in Special schools.

¹ See *The Handicapped Pupils and Special Schools Regulations*, 1959. (S.I. 1959, No. 365.)

In January 1959 there were:

Maintained by Local Education Authorities

582 Special schools containing 50,482 pupils

97 „ Hospital „ „ 4,397 pupils

Maintained by voluntary bodies receiving direct grant from the Ministry of Education

119 Special schools containing 8,468 pupils

12 „ Hospital „ „ 894 pupils

Of the above total of 701 Special schools (excluding Special Hospital schools):

370, with 36,584 pupils, were day-schools

331 were wholly or partly boarding-schools, with

22,366 resident pupils

The distribution of the 701 Special schools among the categories of disability was as follows:

SCHOOLS		PUPILS	TEACHERS ¹
Educationally subnormal	326	30,520	2,231
Delicate	93	7,851	456
Physically handicapped	78	5,016	408
Physically handicapped and delicate	52	5,125	318
Maladjusted	43	1,516	196
Deaf and partially deaf	31	3,333	413
Partially sighted	24	1,562	135
Blind	21	1,170	152
Deaf	15	1,142	156
Epileptic	6	722	47
Partially Deaf	4	452	49
Delicate and maladjusted	4	259	30
Blind and Partially sighted	2	214	26

Despite the fact that the number of schools for educationally subnormal pupils has increased more rapidly than that for any other category (in 1958, out of twenty-six new schools twenty-two were for E.S.N. pupils), and is far larger than any of the others, there has remained an almost constant waiting list of 12,000-13,000 children certified by medical officers as requiring education in Special schools. (In January 1959 the number was

¹ Including the full-time teaching equivalent of part-time teachers.

12,177.) Provision for children in the other categories is regarded as adequate, or nearly so.

School Health Service

For all children between the ages of two and eighteen in attendance at maintained schools there are available:

(a) *A School Health Service*, which provides, free of charge to parents, periodical medical and dental inspection, and medical and dental treatment.

(b) *A School Milk and Meals Service*, which provides daily a free ration ($\frac{1}{3}$ -pint) of milk, cooked midday meals at a small cost (the charge is remitted for the children of necessitous parents), and where necessary such other refreshments as are required.

The provision of these services is a statutory duty upon the local education authorities, who have also powers to provide clothing for children of necessitous parents.

The School Health Service was at 31st December 1958 staffed by:

Medical Officers	2,366	(equivalent to	941	full-time)
Dental Officers	1,603	"	1,032	"
School nurses	6,721	"	2,589	"
Nursing assistants	409	"	244	"
Dental attendants	1,348	"	1,140	"

It conducted during the year ended 31st December 1958:

2,080,000 routine medical inspections
1,853,000 special medical inspections and re-inspections
3,570,000 routine dental inspections

and gave:

Medical treatment to 1,556,000 children

Dental treatment to 1,343,000 children

Medical treatment is arranged in co-operation with the National Health Service, but the School Health Service functions as an autonomous unit. Ultimate responsibility for it lies with the Minister of Health, but its administration is delegated to the Ministry of Education. Every local education authority

must by law appoint a Principal School Medical Officer and a Principal School Dental Officer.

School Meals Service

By the autumn of 1959, 29,851 maintained schools or departments had school meals facilities, and only 539 were without them.

On a selected day in the autumn term of 1959:

3,231,588 day pupils in maintained schools took school dinners; this was 49·7 per cent of the total number at school on that day.

5,479,767 pupils (day and boarding) took milk, being 83·9 per cent of the total present.

Independent schools may arrange with the local education authorities to participate in either or both of the School Health and Milk Services. The financial basis is that the authority shall not have to incur greater *per capita* expenditure than it does in supplying its maintained schools.

Transport of School Children

If the nearest appropriate school is three miles or more from a child's home, the local education authority must by law provide transport to and from school for that child; for children under the age of eight the limit is two miles. Local education authorities in general pay the children's fares by public transport or hire buses from public or private transport companies. They do not run their own fleets of buses, except for the conveyance of physically handicapped children.

Vocational Guidance and Placement

For the benefit of school-leavers there is a Youth Employment Service whose functions are to give vocational guidance to children in their last terms at school, put them in touch with suitable employers, and help them during the early years of

employment. The Y.E.S. is responsible to the Ministry of Labour, but is operated in most areas by the local education authorities.

Help from Other Bodies

A very large proportion of schools use the School Broadcasting Service provided by the British Broadcasting Corporation (B.B.C.). This radiates an organized programme of lessons in many school subjects, and for all age ranges, supplemented by illustrated lesson pamphlets for pupils and teachers' lesson notes. In the autumn of 1959 the B.B.C. was providing, to selected schools, an experimental School Television Service. As a result it was announced that, the experiment having proved successful, the service would be doubled in 1960. Associated-Rediffusion Ltd., a constituent member of the Independent Television Association (I.T.A.), which has also been transmitting television programmes for schools, simultaneously announced an early expansion.

All recently built and many other schools are equipped for film projection. Films suitable for schools are available from the National Foundation for Visual Aids, a body largely financed by the local education authorities, from various film-making organizations, and from many governmental and industrial and commercial undertakings which produce them for publicity purposes. Film strips, available from the same sources, are also used extensively by the schools. Some local education authorities maintain museum services for loaning collections of exhibits to schools, and the Victoria and Albert Museum, London, operates a national scheme for the loan of reproductions of famous pictures.

A small but growing proportion of schools have active Parent-Teacher or Parents' Associations. Many schools organize periodical Open Days, on which parents, relatives, and friends of the pupils are invited to view exhibits of school work and activities. Some local education authorities organize Education Days, or Weeks, when all the schools are open to the public,

and exhibitions and demonstrations are supplemented by lectures on educational topics.

Further Education

Further Education includes all kinds of educational studies and activities, formal and informal, except full-time secondary education and university education, suitable for persons of any age beyond school-leaving age. It covers practically every field of human knowledge and skill, and is provided at every level from that of a child who has just left a Secondary Modern school to post-graduate study and research.

Though the boundaries between them are often hard to delimit, three categories of Further Education can be distinguished: vocational education, cultural studies, and social and recreational activities. Engaged on the first two of these are full-time students, part-time day students and leisure-time students (principally evening). The social and recreative activities are confined to leisure hours – again, principally evenings.

The great bulk of vocational education is provided by the local education authorities, in Colleges of Further Education, Technical, Commercial and Art Colleges, and Evening Institutes. A few establishments receive direct grants from the Ministry of Education, an increasing number of industrial organizations provide facilities on their own premises (often in co-operation with local education authorities), and there are private enterprises, including Correspondence Colleges.

Vocational education is, at the time of writing, being re-organized on a four-tier basis. Ten large Technical Colleges have been designated 'Colleges of Advanced Technology'; these will rid themselves of all elementary and intermediate level work, and will devote themselves entirely to advanced studies, mainly if not exclusively to work of graduate and post-graduate calibre. Next below them will be a larger number (twenty-two in 1959) of Regional Colleges, which also will be concerned principally with advanced studies. The third tier will consist of Area Colleges – one or more for each

local education authority area – which will do intermediate level work. The fourth tier will be made up of numerous Local, or District, Colleges, in which elementary work will be done. In 1959 there were about 170 Area Colleges and 350 District Colleges. This reorganization is being undertaken as part of a five-year plan (1957–62) for the development of technical education in Great Britain. Upon this development the Government proposes to spend £100m. in capital expenditure (£70m. for England and Wales); the aim is to increase the annual production of professionally qualified scientists and technologists from 9,000 to 15,000, and to provide facilities for the education and training of 700,000 part-time day release students in place of the present 400,000.

Liberal studies for adults conducted under Further Education regulations are called 'Adult Education'. While the local education authorities provide considerable facilities for Adult Education, much of this is done by voluntary organizations, usually with grant-aid from either the Ministry of Education or the local education authorities. A number of these organizations are given the status of 'Responsible Bodies'; prominent among them are the Extra-Mural Departments of the Universities and the Workers' Educational Association. An interesting post-war development has been the establishment, principally by local education authorities, of some thirty-five residential Colleges of Adult Education providing short courses ranging in duration from a week-end to a few weeks. There are eight older established residential Colleges of Adult Education providing courses of one year or more. All eight are independent establishments.

Facilities for social and recreative activities are provided by local education authorities, by voluntary youth organizations, and by a host of voluntary bodies, national and local. The range is from physical education and outdoor games to discussion groups, and includes all sorts of hobbies, handicrafts and domestic occupations.

University Education

There are sixteen Universities and one University College in England, and one University – a federation of four colleges – in Wales. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are some 750 years old. London and Durham were founded in the early part of the nineteenth century, Manchester and Wales towards its close: the others are twentieth century foundations. London is by far the largest university; it is more than twice as large as either Oxford or Cambridge, which come next in size.

So rapidly are the numbers of university students increasing, and so large the shifts in the proportions taking various subjects, that statistics can have little beyond historical value. In November 1958 the Universities of England and Wales contained altogether 82,972 full-time students, of whom approximately six out of seven were reading for a first degree; the others were doing post-graduate work or studying for diplomas not ranking as degrees. About 42 per cent of the first-degree students were studying arts subjects, 22.6 per cent mathematics or pure science, 15.1 per cent technological subjects and 13.5 per cent medicine.

First degrees are either 'Ordinary' (or 'Pass'), or 'Honours' (or 'Special'). Ordinary degrees involve study of three or four subjects, and the course normally takes three years. Honours degrees involve specialization in one subject or one or two allied subjects; most of the courses are of three years' duration, but some extend over four.

In 1958-59 26.6 per cent of the students lived in Colleges or halls of residence, 49.6 per cent in lodgings, and 23.8 per cent in their own homes. The proportion of students living in accommodation provided by the University ranged from almost 100 per cent at the University College of North Staffordshire down to less than 20 per cent at Manchester and Sheffield.

About 82 per cent of the students received financial assistance towards payment of tuition fees and cost of maintenance.

Most of this assistance came from public funds. The chief sources of aid were:

(a) Open scholarships, exhibitions and other awards made by the Universities. These are supplemented if need be by grants from the Ministry of Education.

(b) Up to 2,000 State scholarships a year awarded by the Ministry of Education.

(c) About 250 State Studentships awarded annually by the Ministry of Education to post-graduate students of Arts subjects.

(d) About 250 awards made annually by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (D.S.I.R.) to post-graduate students of scientific and technological subjects.

(e) About 17,000 awards made each year by local education authorities.

(f) About 200 scholarships offered annually, almost exclusively to students of science or technology, by various industrial undertakings.

All grants made by the Ministry of Education and the local education authorities are on a sliding scale related to the income of the¹ student's parents, or the student himself if of independent status. The scales are revised every three years. In 1959 children of parents with net income below £450 a year received the full grant, of parents with net income above £2,300 a year an honorarium of £50 a year only. Awards made by industrial concerns are not usually subject to a means test, and they ordinarily carry grants large enough to cover the cost of tuition fees and maintenance.

Training of Teachers

With one exception, Cambridge, the Universities have undertaken responsibility for the academic and professional training

¹ In May 1960 a Government committee (the 'Anderson' Committee) recommended, by a majority, that this means test should be abolished. See *Grants to Students* (Cmd. 1051), H.M.S.O., 1960. The Government deferred a decision pending further investigation.

of teachers, and for awarding the teacher's certificate. Teacher training is consequently organized in seventeen geographical areas, for each of which (the Cambridge area excepted) a University is responsible. The administration of the training scheme is conducted, on behalf of the University, in each area by an Area Training Organization (A.T.O.), representative of the University, the local education authorities in the area, and the training establishments. The A.T.O. is serviced by an Institute (in two cases¹ called School) of Education, which (except at Cambridge) is a department of the University and financed and staffed by it. The directors of the majority of Institutes have the rank of Professor of Education and are full members of the University Senate.

Teacher-training establishments are of two kinds; University Departments of Education, which accept only graduate students, and give them one year of purely professional training, and training colleges, whose students are predominantly non-graduates. Until 1960 training college students received two years of concurrent personal education and professional training, except in specialist Colleges for women teachers of physical education or housecraft, where the course was three years. From 1960 the two-year course was lengthened to three years. On a somewhat different basis are three colleges for training teachers of technical subjects. These accept only older students with industrial or commercial experience, and give them one year of purely professional training. Sixteen Colleges of Art have departments recognized for the training of art teachers; these give a one-year course of professional training to students already possessing qualifications in art.

The twenty-four University Departments of Education are governed, and financed, by their Universities. Of the 137 Training Colleges which were in 1959 recognized for grant by the Ministry of Education eighty-seven were provided, and governed, by local education authorities. They were financed on a national basis by contributions from all the local educa-

¹ Manchester and Wales.

tion authorities and the Ministry of Education. To the fifty grant-aided Voluntary colleges the Minister paid *per capita* grants for maintenance and 50 per cent of any approved capital expenditure. (From 1960 he is empowered to pay 75 per cent.) Local education authorities grant-aid students at both Provided and Voluntary Colleges, on scales comparable with those for university students.

Policy Making

In the making of national policy for education the Minister of Education has the final say, subject to the over-riding authority of Parliament. But in the framing of policy the local education authorities and the teachers, through their professional associations, play a very important part; they are taken into consultation on all matters of substance, and the initiative in making proposals frequently comes from them. The principal associations are:

The National Union of Teachers (N.U.T.) which includes members from all branches of the statutory system and from the Universities, but draws the great bulk of its membership from the Primary and Secondary schools. With about 215,000 members, it is by far the largest of the associations.

The Joint Four Secondary Associations (Joint Four), which represents the Grammar Schools and comprises:

The Incorporated Association of Headmasters of Secondary Schools (I.A.H.M.);

The Association of Headmistresses (H.M.A.);

The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools (I.A.A.M.);

The Assistant Mistresses Association (A.M.A.).

The National Association of Head Teachers (N.A.H.T.) which is chiefly representative of the Primary schools and the Secondary Modern schools.

The Headmasters' Conference (H.M.C.). Membership is confined to the Heads of Public Schools.

The Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education (A.T.C.D.E.). For the staffs of teacher-training establishments and University Departments of Education.

The Association of University Teachers (A.U.T.).

The Association of Principals of Technical Institutions (A.P.T.I.).

The Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions (A.T.T.I.).

The Association of Technical Institutions (A.T.I.).

The National Association of Schoolmasters (N.A.S.) exists primarily to defend specifically male interests, but concerns itself also with the entire range of educational questions. There are also many subject associations, such as the Mathematical Association and the Modern Languages Association.

Most of the foregoing publish regularly official journals, the best known being *The Schoolmaster*, published weekly, which is the journal of the N.U.T.

The Association of Education Committees (A.E.C.).

The County Councils' Association (C.C.A.).

The Association of Municipal Corporations (A.M.C.).

These bodies have corporate memberships. The C.C.A. and the A.M.C. concern themselves with all aspects of local government, the A.E.C. with educational matters only. The A.E.C. publishes a weekly journal, *Education*.

Among other bodies which concern themselves actively with educational questions are:

The National Union of Students (N.U.S.). Membership of this is open to students in University institutions and teacher-training colleges.

The Workers' Educational Association (W.E.A.). This Association has always been active in promoting educational reform.

The Trades Union Congress (T.U.C.).

The Federation of British Industries (F.B.I.). (The education committees of these two bodies have been increasingly active in recent years).

The British Council of Churches.

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Control and Direction

IN writing about control of education in England and Wales, it is necessary to say at the outset that there is all the difference in the world between the letter of the law and the way in which this is often interpreted in practice. On paper, for example, Section 1 of the Education Act, 1944, accords to the Minister of Education virtually dictatorial powers over the local education authorities, who are put 'under his control and direction'. No Minister has yet even attempted to use those powers dictatorially, and there would be a first-class political crisis if one did. Consultation and negotiation are the means he is expected to employ, and in fact does employ. Moreover, in practice, well understood and accepted powers of control and direction are vested in bodies and individuals at all levels in the educational system. In some cases these powers have no sanction whatever in law. An outstanding instance of this is the Head Teacher, who is not even mentioned in the Education Act, 1944, but whose power within his domain is extensive and substantial. Alongside this wide distribution of powers – which has developed almost entirely during the present century – there has grown up also an intricate network of checks designed to prevent the undue or irresponsible use of power by any body or individual; and this, again, is only in part sanctioned by law. But too much must not be made of checks and balances; what really makes the English educational system 'tick' is the fact that the various parties who have to work it – central and local administrators, teachers, and voluntary bodies – regard and treat each other as partners.

All that must be borne in mind as one examines the hierarchy of control and direction. Ultimate control rests with Parlia-

ment (as representative of the electorate), which enacts the law relating to education, and by various means assures itself that this is being observed. The Minister of Education, to whom Parliament delegates the responsibility for 'control and direction' of the statutory system has to make an annual report to Parliament on the state of the system,¹ and his presentation of this report is invariably the occasion for a full-length debate in the House of Commons. In addition, any member of either House of Parliament may at any time request a debate on a specified educational topic. All regulations (which have the force of law) which the Minister proposes to make, as required or permitted by the Education Acts, must be 'laid before Parliament',² that is, be available in the House for scrutiny by Members, for a period of forty Parliamentary days before they can be put into operation; during this period any Member has the right to ask Parliament to annul them. And any Member of the House of Commons may on any Parliamentary day ask the Minister in the House a question (or more than one) about any educational matter within his jurisdiction. It is by this last means that Parliament keeps itself most constantly informed. Any M.P. may also seek information privately from the Minister, or draw his attention to alleged defects or injustice.

By a tradition that has become firmly established during the present century Parliament does not prescribe in legislation what shall be taught in schools and colleges. A striking exception to this otherwise sacrosanct tradition was, however, made in 1944, when for the first time in the history of the statutory system religious instruction and worship were made compulsory in all maintained schools.³ Parliament does not prescribe any text or other books, or give any directions about teaching methods; and M.P.s who ask questions about such matters are usually told firmly by the Minister that they are the concern of the teacher.

¹ *Education Act, 1944*. Section 5.

² *Ibid.* Section 112.

³ *Ibid.* Section 25.

Minister of Education

By the Education Act, 1944, personal responsibility to Parliament for the statutory system of public education is vested in a Minister of Education. As the political head of the educational system the Minister must be a Member of Parliament. He is *ex officio* a senior Minister of the Crown, and in recent years has generally, though not invariably, had a seat in the Cabinet.

It is important to note that the Minister is held *personally* responsible to Parliament for the proper conduct of the educational system. He is, in the words of the Education Act, 1944, a 'corporation sole', that is, a corporate body in himself, and as such responsible for everything that is done in his name or by his agents. This is in accordance with the English convention which holds the head of any undertaking responsible for whatever happens within it.

The statutory duty laid upon the Minister of Education by the 1944 Act is a positive one. It is:

to *promote* the education of the people of England and Wales and the *progressive development* of institutions devoted to that purpose, and to *secure the effective execution*, by local authorities under his control and direction, of the *national policy* for providing a *varied and comprehensive educational service* in every area.

The words I have italicized can clearly be interpreted in very varied fashion; and so the first, and most important, function of the Minister is to determine how they shall be translated into terms of policy and action. In coming to his decisions he can hardly fail to be influenced to some extent by the views of the political party to which he belongs; for he will have to secure the agreement to major policy decisions of his colleagues in the Cabinet, and in particular of the Prime Minister, who presumably has the last word in policy making, and of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who will have to provide the necessary money. In order to place before the Cabinet practicable and

(he hopes) convincing proposals he will previously have had consultations with his professional advisers in the Ministry of Education, with representatives of the local education authorities and of the teachers, and any other bodies concerned. It is no exaggeration to say that by far the most important, and most difficult, part of the Minister's work is done behind the scenes.

The Minister's second function is to be the principal spokesman for public education, both in Parliament and among the general public – for, like every other Minister of the Crown, he is expected to undertake a heavy programme of public engagements, at almost all of which he is expected to make carefully prepared speeches on educational matters. And, thirdly, he is in charge of the Ministry of Education, and responsible for all the decisions taken there and for the administrative action which consequently follows.

Unlike Ministers of Education in many countries, the Minister for England and Wales does not exercise jurisdiction over all forms of education. University institutions are outside his province; they are independent and autonomous bodies, and the money they receive from public funds comes, not through the Minister of Education, but direct from the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Education within the Armed Forces and their auxiliary Services is controlled by the Admiralty, the War Office and the Air Ministry. 'Approved schools' for juvenile delinquents and Borstal institutions for older delinquents are the concern of the Home Office. The Minister of Education shares with the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, and with the Universities, responsibility for agricultural and horticultural education; he is responsible only for those parts of such education that are conducted in schools and colleges maintained or grant-aided by local education authorities.

Nor does the English Minister have to undertake a number of functions which are commonly the responsibility of Ministers of Education in other countries. He does not provide, own, or control directly any school, college, or other educational establishment. He does not appoint, employ, pay or

dismiss any teachers. He does not prescribe, veto, or censor any books or other printed material, or prescribe or veto any other kinds of equipment and apparatus for use in schools and other educational establishments. He does not prescribe, compile, alter, or veto any curricula, or dictate or prohibit any forms of organization or teaching methods. By an interesting anomaly he has retained control of three London museums: the Victoria and Albert and the Science Museums in South Kensington, and the Bethnal Green Museum in East London, which he grant-aids; but otherwise he neither controls nor finances any museum, art gallery, or public library.

The functions of the local education authorities will be discussed in detail later, but it is opportune to observe at this point that, in practice, it is often difficult, if not impossible, to determine exactly where the Minister's responsibility ends (except in the general sense that ultimately he is responsible for everything done under the law relating to education), and theirs begins. The lines of demarcation are, in fact, recurrently a source of dispute between central and local authorities. In 1951 a Government committee,¹ in an attempt to produce an agreed formula, suggested that there were six key points at which the Minister must retain control. He must, said the Committee, be able to ensure that:

(a) Educational facilities and ancillary services are provided in sufficient quantity and variety.

(b) Educational establishments and ancillary services are well managed, equipped, staffed, and maintained.

(c) The proper freedom of parents, teachers, and other third parties is secured.

(d) The qualifications of teachers and medical officers are such as to satisfy proper requirements to safeguard their and the children's interests.

(e) The fees charged, and awards and allowances made, are such as are necessary and appropriate.

¹ Local Government Manpower Committee. Second Report, December 1951. H.M. Stationery Office.

(f) The provision of education premises satisfies essential standards.

These proposals were accepted in principle by the Government, the Minister of Education and the representatives of the local education authorities; but it would be idle to pretend that they have put an end to the problem.

The Minister, in accordance with the directions of the Education Acts, makes known to the local education authorities, and other bodies where these are concerned, his requirements for the organization and administration of the educational system, and the conditions on which grants will be paid from the Exchequer, in bodies of Regulations officially described as Statutory Rules and Orders (S.R. & O.) or Statutory Instruments (S.I.). These regulations, which amplify and make more precise requirements made in brief and general terms in the Education Acts, have the force of law, and consequently are mandatory upon the local education authorities and any other bodies to which they refer; failure to comply with them would result in the Minister's refusing to recognize for grant the expenditure affected (where grant is involved), or applying other sanctions – in extreme cases taking over control from the body concerned. Under the Education Act, 1944, the Minister has to make some nine bodies of Regulations of the first importance,¹ and has made some twenty others, on matters ranging from the registration of pupils at school to State scholarships. As need arises amending Regulations are made altering particular points in a main body of Regulations; when several of these have been made, or new legislation requires changes, a revised body of Regulations is made.

The Minister makes known his views on matters of policy and opinion in documents called Circulars. These are not mandatory but advisory or informational, and consequently no local education authority, or other body, is legally bound to

¹ Concerning Standards for School Premises, Primary and Secondary schools, Further Education, Local Education Authorities, Provision of Milk and Meals, School Health Services, Handicapped Pupils, Scholarships and Other Benefits, Training of Teachers.

accept the advice, or adopt any action advocated, in a Circular, though it must be admitted that in some cases Circulars announce Ministerial decisions – for example, about educational building programmes – which leave the local authorities with little opportunity for alternative action. They have, however, the right to dispute points on which they disagree, whereas in the case of a Regulation their only remedy is to persuade the Minister to make a different one.

About matters of routine or detail the Minister issues Administrative Memoranda (A.M.). These, the most numerous of the Ministerial documents that are made public, may give advice or information, or announce Ministerial decisions. All Regulations, Circulars and Administrative Memoranda are published,¹ and may be purchased by the public.

The content and wording of Regulations are always the subject of discussion – often prolonged – between the Minister, the local education authorities, the teachers' associations and any other bodies concerned. So far as is possible Regulations are, by the time they are published, agreed documents; in case, however, of irreconcilable differences of opinion the Minister has the final say. While it is not so vital to obtain unanimous agreement about the terms of Circulars, since these are not mandatory documents, the Minister will, as a rule, consult a wide range of opinion before issuing one on an important matter of national policy. He may send one or more drafts to all the bodies concerned, asking for their comments, and it is possible for weeks, or even months, of consultation and negotiation to take place before an important Circular reaches its final form. It should be made clear, too, that the initiative in making new Regulations or proposing Circulars need not necessarily be taken by the Minister; not infrequently it comes from some other body.

According to English tradition, not only is the Minister responsible for all that is done in his name; he is actually supposed to have done himself far more than one person could

¹ By H.M. Stationery Office, York House, Kingsway, London W.C.2. They can be obtained through any bookseller.

possibly do. In practice, what the Minister of Education is supposed to have done may have been done by one or other of a great number of people.

To assist him in his Parliamentary, Departmental, and public functions the Minister has a Parliamentary Secretary, who is a Member of Parliament and a Junior Minister of the Crown. He has also at his service in Parliament an M.P. who acts as his Parliamentary Private Secretary.

The Minister is bound by law to appoint two bodies to give him advice. Section 4(1) of the Education Act, 1944, says:

There shall be two Central Advisory Councils for Education, one for England and the other for Wales and Monmouthshire, and it shall be the duty of those Councils to advise the Minister upon such matters connected with educational theory and practice as they think fit, and upon any questions referred to them by him.

These Councils replaced the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education. Apart from the fact that there are now two – a recognition of the fact that Wales has its own particular problems – a significant change was made in the terms of reference; the Consultative Committee could only advise on matters referred to it by the President of the Board of Education, but the Central Advisory Councils can also take the initiative in proffering advice.

These are the only advisory bodies which the Minister is statutorily bound to appoint, but there are others which have become firmly established. The oldest of these is the Secondary School Examinations Council (S.S.E.C.), set up in 1917, which advises the Minister on policy and arrangements for external examinations. Since the war the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers (N.A.C.T.S.T.) and the National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce (N.A.C.E.I.C.) have been created. The Minister may also appoint *ad hoc* committees to advise him on specific problems, and frequently does so.

The Ministry of Education

The great bulk of advice and assistance given to the Minister comes, however, from his Department, the Ministry of Education, which is also his chief source of advice about national policy for education, and his chief means for securing that policy is carried out in practice.

The Ministry of Education is a normal Government Department, staffed by Civil Servants, and having attached to it a corps of Her Majesty's Inspectors. It is one of the smaller Government Departments, employing (at the time of writing) about 2,700 persons. About eighty of these are officers of the Administrative Grade, who are concerned with policy making and policy decisions. About the same number are Professional Officers – lawyers, medical officers, architects, accountants, and so on – engaged on specialist tasks. The others are Executive Officers, who carry out the administration required to translate policy into practice, clerks, messengers, and so on. The Inspectorate is between 400 and 500 strong.

The headquarters of the Ministry are in Curzon Street, London W.1, north of Piccadilly and near Hyde Park. Several of its branches are located elsewhere in or near London, the Welsh Department has also a provincial headquarters in Cardiff, and there are ten regional offices in different parts of the country outside London.

The head of the Ministry of Education is the Permanent Secretary; he is responsible to the Minister for all work done in the Department. Next in rank is the Deputy Secretary (at times there are two Deputies). Then come the Under Secretaries, each of whom has charge of one or more of the Branches into which the Ministry is divided. New Branches are not infrequently added, and others reorganized, and so the following list must not be considered definitive:

Schools.

Special Services.

Teachers.

Legal.

Establishments and Organization.

Further Education.

Accountant General's Department.	Adult Education and Youth Service.
Statistics.	Salaries.
Architects and Building.	Pensions.
External Relations and General.	Awards.
	Unesco.

A Branch is subdivided into divisions, in the charge of Assistant Secretaries, and the divisions into sections, in the charge of Principals. All these officers are in the Administrative Grade. New recruits to this grade who are still learning the job, and are not in charge of Sections, are called Assistant Principals. The Welsh Department has its own Permanent Secretary, and a similar, but separate, hierarchy of administrative officers.

H.M. Inspectorate of Schools

As their title suggests, H.M. Inspectors are on a different footing from the other Civil Servants. They are appointed, not by the Minister of Education, but by the Crown – Her Majesty in Council – to whom they are recommended by a selection board which includes the Senior Chief Inspector and a member of the Civil Service Commission. This gives them a measure of independence, which is highly prized. The Inspectorate is nowadays recruited, by public advertisement, almost exclusively from the teaching profession. It is headed by a Senior Chief Inspector, who is responsible to the Permanent Secretary. Directly under him are six Chief Inspectors, respectively in charge of the supervision of:

- Primary Education and Special Educational Treatment.
- Secondary Education.
- Vocational Further Education.
- Non-vocational Further Education.
- Training of Teachers.
- Educational Developments.

For purposes of inspection England is divided into ten geographical divisions; for each of these a Divisional Inspector is

responsible. Each division is divided into districts, to each of which an Inspector is allotted. These Inspectors are moved every few years from one district to another, so that they may gain wide experience. Divisional Inspectors are similarly moved. At the Ministry there is a corps of Staff Inspectors, each specializing in some particular field of educational work: for example, the teaching of chemistry, rural education, buildings and equipment, or liaison with other countries.

There is a separate Inspectorate for Wales, with a structure similar to the English one but simpler, since there are no divisions. At its head is a Chief Inspector.

On paper the functions of H.M. Inspectorate do not appear to be greatly different from those of school inspectors in many other countries. "Broadly speaking," says a pamphlet¹ issued by the Ministry, "Her Majesty's Inspectors have a threefold responsibility":

(a) To inspect, assess, and report on the efficiency of schools and other educational institutions.

(b) To serve as the local representatives of the Ministry on administrative matters; and

(c) To act as the expert advisers of the Ministry on matters of educational theory and practice.

There is, however, a fundamental difference between the way in which the first of these functions is interpreted in this country from that in which it is interpreted in many others. In brief, Her Majesty's Inspectors may not give orders, either to local education authorities or to teachers; they may only criticize, commend, and advise. They carry out their functions of inspection, assessment, and report both rigorously and efficiently. After a full inspection of a school or other educational establishment – conducted by a team of specialist Inspectors and lasting several days – they write a comprehensive and detailed report, and this may be highly critical. But there the Inspectors' duty ends; it is the duty of those in charge of the

¹ *A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1945, pages 9–10.

school both to decide whether the criticisms made are justified (they almost invariably are), and if so what must be done to put matters right. It should be added that after a full inspection the Inspectors always discuss with the school authorities the substance of their proposed report before writing it, that copies of the report (which is a confidential document) have to be given to the school authorities, and that any teacher who is adversely criticized therein must be shown the criticism and given an opportunity to answer it. On the other hand, an Inspector's report may not be altered by anyone other than the writer – not even by the Minister of Education.

Another point to be noted is that Her Majesty's Inspectors have creative as well as inspectorial functions. They organize and conduct every year a large number of refresher and other short courses for teachers; the leadership in these is normally taken by a Staff Inspector, but any H.M.I. with relevant knowledge or skill may be called upon to act as a lecturer or tutor. The Inspectorate is also largely responsible for compiling the admirable series of booklets on educational matters which the Ministry publishes for the help and guidance of teachers and the information of the general public. Finally, the importance of their function as liaison officers between the Ministry and the other parts of the educational system can hardly be exaggerated. They sit as 'observers' (members without voting powers) on innumerable councils, boards, and committees, and on these, and in less formal discussions, do invaluable service as go-betweens.

Local Education Authorities

By Section 7 of the Education Act, 1944, it is the statutory duty of the local education authority:

... so far as their powers extend, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education ... shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area. There are 146 local education authorities in England and

Wales: 129 in England and 17 in Wales. They are the councils of the 62 administrative counties, the councils of the 83 county boroughs,¹ and one Joint Board representative of a county council and a county borough council. Their areas vary immensely in size, population, and financial resources. The London County Council, though its area is much smaller (117 square miles) than many others (Lancashire's is nearly 2,000 square miles), has a population of between four and five millions, and its expenditure on education was in 1958-59 over £45m. Birmingham, a county borough, has a population of over a million. The counties of Radnorshire in Wales and Rutland in England have populations of barely 20,000. In some of the largest and wealthiest local authority areas a rate of one penny in the pound may produce over a hundred times as much as in some of the smallest and poorest areas.

The council of a county or county borough is a representative body elected by the ratepayers of the area to deal with all matters within the province of local government. Its members may or may not be well acquainted with educational matters. So by law the authority must "establish such education committees as they think it expedient to establish for the efficient discharge of their functions with respect to education".² In practice each council appoints one main Education Committee, which then proceeds to appoint a number of sub-committees to deal in detail with the various parts of the wide field it has to cover. There are always, for example, sub-committees for primary, secondary, and further education. "At least a majority of every education committee of a local education authority shall be members of the authority," says the Act, but it also lays down that "every education committee of a local education authority shall include persons of experience in education and persons acquainted with the educational conditions prevailing in the area for which the committee acts". The education committee itself determines how its

¹ Large towns which have been granted by Royal Charter the status of County Borough.

² Education Act, 1944, First Schedule, Part II.

sub-committees shall be constituted, but these also invariably include co-opted members selected on the same criteria.

"A local education authority may authorize an education committee of the authority to exercise on their behalf any of their functions with respect to education, except the power to borrow money or to raise a rate."¹ Councils differ in the degree of delegation which they confer upon their education committees; some leave almost all decisions to their committees, being content with formally approving their actions, while others allow their committees to make recommendations only, which have to be approved by the council before they can be acted upon. But except in cases of urgent matters or of matters that have been considered by an authorized minor body, a council must consider a report made by their education committee before exercising any of their functions as an education authority.

Many county and county borough councils are elected on party political grounds. This naturally has its effect upon local, and indirectly upon national, educational policy, though it must be remembered that all policy decisions made, and all large projects contemplated, by a local education authority must be approved by the Minister of Education. One of the most controversial policy decisions made in recent times was that of the London County Council in 1944 to establish throughout its area a system of Comprehensive Secondary schools. This decision was made by the Labour Party majority in face of bitter opposition from the Conservative minority. About the same time a Labour majority on the Middlesex County Council made a similar decision for that area, but in 1949 the Conservatives were returned to power in Middlesex, and they promptly reversed the decision. Such major changes of policy are rare, partly because local education authorities must work within the framework laid down by the Education Acts and the Minister's Regulations made thereunder, but more because, happily, there are few fundamental issues in public education about which the political parties differ

¹ *Ibid.*

radically.¹ Their differences are in the main differences of emphasis only.

Every local education authority maintains an education office staffed by salaried employees who are local government servants. This is organized on somewhat similar lines to the Ministry of Education, with a Chief Education Officer (often called the Director of Education) in charge, and a hierarchy of administrative, executive, and clerical staff. It is arranged in sections, for primary, secondary, and further education, and so on. Each local education authority must by law appoint a Chief Education Officer, a Principal School Medical Officer, and a Principal School Dental Officer. The two latter may also be serving the council in other capacities, but the Chief Education Officer is engaged exclusively with educational matters. The Minister of Education must see the list of candidates selected for interview by the local education authority for the post of Chief Education Officer, and has the power to strike out the name of any person he considers unsuitable.²

The staff of a local authority's education office ranges in number from a score or two persons to several hundreds. Larger authorities have a deputy Chief Education Officer and two, three, or more Assistant Education Officers, and may have a number of 'organizers' or advisers, to assist the teachers in their schools, especially in such specialized subjects as art, music, drama, and physical education. Some authorities employ local inspectors; these, it must be noted, are *not* members of Her Majesty's Inspectorate. A few local education authorities have their own architect or surveyor, but most use the services of the architect appointed to serve the council as a whole, though his department often has a section devoted to educational building.

The local education authority functions in all material respects like any other body for local government. Matters for decision are brought before the education committee, referred

¹ The Comprehensive Secondary school and the 'Eleven-Plus' examination are the most important ones.

² Education Act, 1944, Section 88.

to the appropriate sub-committee (or they may originate there) which discusses them and makes recommendations to the main committee, which approves, rejects, or modifies them. If the main committee's decision is about matters delegated to the education committee, it is reported to the council; if not, it has to be considered by the council as the authority. Matters involving expenditure of money necessitate the concurrence of the council's finance committee – which can often be a thorn in the flesh of the education committee, as the latter's expenditure is today by far the largest item in the council's budget, and therefore especially vulnerable when economies are being made.

Throughout all the education committee's deliberations technical information and professional advice are supplied by its salaried officers, who may, and in many cases do, exercise a profound influence on the authority's policy. It is no exaggeration to say that this is often largely created and carried through by the Chief Education Officer, who is, however, careful to work through the statutory machinery. Indeed, he must do so, for ultimately he has no power in his own right. That lies with the authority, the elected council, and, as more than one forceful Chief Education Officer has discovered to his dismay in recent years, even the most apparently docile education committee or council may on occasion take the bit between its teeth and go its own way regardless of his wishes or advice.

Ministry and Local Authority

It is impossible in a few paragraphs to describe comprehensively the numerous ways in which contact is maintained between the Ministry of Education and the local education authority. It is close, continuous, and as a rule cordial; and it is maintained by both formal and informal means. A great deal of local authority business is handled in the Ministry by officers called Territorial Principals. To each of these is allotted the areas of one or more local education authorities, and to him these authorities address their correspondence on all routine

matters. It is the responsibility of the Territorial Principal to assure himself that projects submitted by the local education authority conform to the Minister's Regulations, to approve them on behalf of the Minister when they are, or to return them with his comments when they are not. He is also expected to act as general consultant to his local authorities. If on any matter submitted to him he cannot, or is not authorized to, give an opinion or make a decision he refers this to his immediate superior, who in his turn may have to pass it still higher; in extreme cases it may even reach the Minister himself. The answer given, this is passed down the line to the Territorial Principal, who communicates it to the local education authority.

But that is only one means of contact, though a much used one. In addition, discussions and consultations, both formal and informal, take place between representatives of the local education authority and of particular branches in the Ministry, and in these the local or divisional H.M.I. will frequently act as intermediary. When a dispute arises between a local education authority and the Ministry which cannot be resolved in informal discussions there are various recognized forms of action which can be taken. If, for example, a local education authority is unwilling to accept a Ministerial decision – say, about a project in its building programme – the education committee (or the council) may pass a resolution expressing dissent or disappointment. With or without this action, the committee (or council) may instruct the Chief Education Officer to write to the Ministry putting the authority's case, or to seek an opportunity to put it verbally, or, if the matter seems serious enough, to ask the Minister to receive a deputation from the authority. If the authority feels the matter to be one of general, or national, concern it may ask one, or more, of the professional associations of local government administrators – the Association of Education Committees, the County Councils Association, and the Association of Municipal Corporations – to take the matter up. There is a constant flow of correspondence about such matters between these bodies and the Ministry.

From the other side, the Minister may send to an authority a formal letter deprecating some action, or proposed action, on its part, or one advising against such action, or he may send an official down to discuss the matter with the authority.

Whenever possible the use of such formal methods of communication is preceded by informal discussions. What happens frequently is that the local authority's Chief Education Officer gets on to the telephone to the appropriate officer at the Ministry and says "Look here, we are proposing to do so-and-so; what do you feel about it?" Or from the other end the Ministry's officer rings up to say "I understand your Authority is proposing to do so-and-so; well, our opinion is . . ." Such informal interchange often takes place also in between the exchange of formal correspondence; the Ministry official will ring through to say "I shall be sending you shortly a letter about so-and-so, and this is what I am going to say, and this is what it really means". Or the Chief Education Officer will telephone "We are sending you such and such a proposal; I thought you'd like to know in advance about it, so that you can be thinking it over". There have even been occasions when the Ministry has been advised by a Chief Education Officer over the telephone not to approve something his authority has formally proposed; and vice versa when an officer of the Ministry has suggested to a local authority ways of circumventing some Ministerial pronouncement which appeared to bar a favoured project.

The frequency, and success, of such informal relationships depend very largely upon the personality of the local education authority's Chief Education Officer. When, as is often the case, he is working hand-in-glove with an experienced and knowledgeable chairman of the education committee of equal force of personality, the two together can work wonders. They are the key people in the local education authority hierarchy.

Similar methods of co-operation are employed in dealings between the local education authority and minor authorities, voluntary associations, and responsible persons in the authority's

area. Three examples may be cited as illustrative; relationships between county education authorities and their divisional executives, between local education authorities generally and the managers of governors of schools and between the authority and head teachers of schools.

Divisional Executives

Divisional executives are a new feature in the local administration of education. The Education Act, 1944, abolished the 'Part III Authorities' – municipal boroughs and urban districts, 169 in number, which previously had been in charge of elementary education in their areas. These naturally resented strongly their abolition, and to give them some compensation the Act¹ required the county education authorities (unless exempted by the Minister) to partition their areas into 'divisions' and to prepare schemes whereby bodies known as 'divisional executives' would exercise on behalf of the authority specified functions relating to primary and secondary education. Further, any municipal borough or urban district council which had in 1939 a population of not less than 60,000 or not fewer than 7,000 pupils on the rolls of its public elementary schools could lodge a claim, before 1st October 1944, to be excepted from the authority's scheme, and to have the right to prepare, in consultation with the authority, its own scheme of divisional administration. Forty-five municipal borough and urban district councils made good their claims to be 'excepted districts', and 165 other divisions were created, altogether affecting thirty-seven of the sixty-two counties. By 1954 the number of divisional executives had fallen to 202, of which forty-five were excepted districts. In 1959 nine more divisions were accorded the status of 'excepted districts'.

In an excepted district the local council is the executive; in the other divisions the executive is made up of representatives of such minor authorities (borough, urban, and rural district, councils) as there are in the division – who must be in the

¹ Education Act, 1944, First Schedule, Part III.

majority – representatives of the local education authority, and co-opted members. The powers and functions delegated to divisional executives vary, with excepted districts having as a rule more powers and a wider range of functions than the executives of divisions. But in no case can the power to borrow money or to levy a rate be delegated to them; these powers are by the Education Act, 1944,¹ reserved exclusively to the local education authority. Within its more limited range a divisional executive functions in much the same way as a local education authority through committees and sub-committees serviced by a salaried staff with an education officer at their head. The staff are employees of the local education authority, by whom alone they can be dismissed, though the power to appoint them may have been delegated to the executive.

The experiment of divisional executives has not proved everywhere entirely successful, though it has worked happily enough in many areas. In these a tradition of partnership between the authority and the executive has developed which is comparable with that between the Ministry of Education and the local education authority. But where, as has unfortunately happened in some places, an executive has been more interested in enlarging its powers than in caring for the educational health of its neighbourhood much friction between itself and the authority has ensued.

One of the reasons why some people looked askance at the idea of divisional executives when it was first mooted was a fear that the existence of executives would leave boards of managers or governors of schools with little to do, and that little neither particularly interesting nor important. It is probably correct to say that, except in rare cases, the fear has not been realized.

The Education Act, 1944, repeating a provision made in previous Acts, requires² that every maintained Primary school shall have a properly constituted board of managers, working in accordance with rules of management, and every maintained

¹ First Schedule, Part III, 8.

² Section 17.

Secondary school a properly constituted board of governors, working according to articles of government. A board of management may not consist of fewer than six persons; no minimum figure is specified for a board of governors, and these boards are normally larger than boards of managers. For a county Primary school the entire board is appointed by the local education authority, unless the school serves the area of a minor authority, in which case that authority appoints one-third of the members. For a voluntary controlled school two-thirds of the managers or governors are appointed by the authority, and one-third by the body providing the school premises; for a Voluntary Aided school the proportions are reversed.¹ By Section 20 of the Education Act, 1944 (again repeating a provision from previous Acts), several schools may be grouped together under a single board of managers or governors; this is frequently done, and in extreme cases the local education authority's sub-committee for primary or secondary education will act as the board of management or government for all the schools in the area.

The statutory powers granted to boards of governors and managers of county schools are normally extremely limited. Unless invited by the authority to take part, these boards have no control over the appointment of teachers to their schools.² Boards of Voluntary Controlled and Special Agreement schools have a voice in the appointment of 'reserved' teachers, that is, teachers appointed specifically to give religious instruction; but none (at least officially) in the dismissal of any teacher.³ For Aided schools the rules of management or articles of government must specify the respective powers of appointment of the local education authority and the managers or governors, which are in brief that the latter appoint and the former decide how many shall be employed.⁴ The right of dismissal rests with the authority, except⁵ in the case of teachers

¹ In either case the non-authority members may be otherwise appointed if the school's foundation or trust deed so directs.

² Education Act, 1944, Section 24. ³ *Ibid.* ⁴ *Ibid.* ⁵ Section 28.

appointed to give denominational religious instruction, who may be dismissed by the managers or governors for failing to give this instruction 'efficiently and suitably'.

Despite its limited powers, an interested and active board of managers or governors can be extremely helpful to a school. Its members, and especially the chairman, can give welcome and valuable support to a Head Teacher, by encouraging him and his staff, by appearing at school functions, by explaining the aims and methods of the school to parents, and by urging the authority to make available staff, accommodation, and equipment felt to be needed. Many more boards of managers and governors than is generally believed do aid in these and other ways; but far too many do not.

Like all other bodies exercising administrative control in English education, boards of managers and governors do not interfere with the day-to-day organization of the school life or with the curriculum and teaching methods. These are held to be the responsibility of the Head Teacher, who is accorded more power and more freedom in the use of it than the heads of schools in any other country known to the writer. This is, I believe, primarily due to the strength with which two convictions are held in this country: first, that the best way in which to ensure good results is to vest responsibility for a job in a person and then to allow him to go about it in his own way, intervening only if he is manifestly not doing it properly; and secondly, that a school is not only a place for learning but also a society, free to plan and conduct its corporate life as seems best to it, provided that it keeps this life within the accepted framework laid down by social convention and the national policy for education. The Head Teacher's task is, with the aid of his staff and his pupils, to create such an autonomous society, and to maintain it in a state of good health. This he can only do, of course, if he accords to his staff a similar freedom within their narrower domains.

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Primary Education

SECTION 8 (1) of the Education Act, 1944, defines primary education baldly as 'education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils', and Section 114 explains that a 'junior pupil' is 'a child who has not attained the age of twelve years'. Not long after the Act came into operation, however, the Grammar schools pointed out that because of the latter definition some intellectually able children were being kept in the Primary school beyond an age at which they were ready to undertake secondary studies. The definition of primary education was consequently amended by Section 3 of the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948, to read:

... full-time education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils who have not attained the age of ten years six months, and full-time education suitable to the requirements of junior pupils who have attained that age and whom it is expedient to educate together with junior pupils who have not attained that age.

This, together with the definition of 'junior pupil' given above, means in plain English that primary education may be concluded as early as the age of ten years six months and must be concluded before the twelfth birthday. Section 35 of the 1944 Act defines 'compulsory school age' as 'any age between five and fifteen years'; primary education must therefore be begun not later than the fifth birthday. But Section 8 of the Act requires local education authorities to 'have regard':

to the need for securing that provision is made for pupils who have not attained the age of five years by the provision of Nursery schools or, where the authority consider the provision of such to be inexpedient, by the provision of nursery classes in other schools.

Nursery Schools and Classes

By regulation,¹ children may enter a Nursery school at the age of two. The maximum length of time a child can spend in primary education is, therefore, ten years, and the absolute minimum (assuming he enters at five and leaves at ten and a half) is five and a half years. For the vast majority of children the period is between six and seven years; they enter the Primary school at the age of five, and leave it at some time between their eleventh and twelfth birthdays.

Though the number of maintained and grant-aided Nursery schools was in 1959 four times as great as in 1939 (474 as against 120) far less expansion has been made in this field than could have been hoped. This is in large part due to the post-war growth in the school population, which has kept the local education authorities very fully occupied in providing sufficient accommodation for the children of 'compulsory school age', who must, when there are competing needs, be given priority. There were, in 1959, only about 22,500 children in grant-aided Nursery schools. For the same reason the number of children in nursery classes, which are classes in Primary schools for children between the ages of three and five, had fallen in 1959 far below the number in 1939: from about 180,000 to about 50,000.

This is regrettable, for nursery education is one of the happiest and most enlightened features of English education. The Nursery school is, indeed, the ideal bridge for the child between his enclosed and dependent life at home and the larger corporate society of the school.

There are no formal lessons in a Nursery school; in a specially designed environment the children occupy themselves in indoor and outdoor play, choosing freely from the wide variety of toys and other material provided; in drawing, painting, and modelling, in listening to stories told by the teacher, in singing nursery rhymes and simple songs, and dancing with gay abandon and pleasing rhythm to music;

¹ The Schools Regulations, 1959. (S.I. 1959, No. 364.) Regulation 7(2).

in learning to realize the values of money, weights and measures through playing at shops, and practising domestic chores. It is a period of attitude and habit formation, with as much attention paid to social behaviour and physical health as to preparation for more academic learning.

A Nursery school must be in the charge of a qualified superintendent teacher. The permitted maximum number of children in a Nursery school class, or in a nursery class, is thirty – ten fewer than in the rest of the Primary school.

Infants and Juniors

Nursery education is voluntary; compulsory primary education begins at five. The period between this age and twelve is divided into two stages, of infant and junior education. The infant stage ends between the ages of seven and eight. The junior stage is rather longer; for some children it may extend over a full four years. Sometimes these two stages are conducted in separate buildings, but more often in separate departments in the same building. Even in 'all-age' schools – except very small ones, and all range Primary schools having only one, or two, teachers, where it is impossible – the infants are grouped together in a different room (or rooms) from the juniors. Where infant and junior departments are in the same building there may or may not be an independent Head Teacher for the infants' department; generally speaking, where the departments are large there is, where they are small there is one Head Teacher for the whole Primary school, and he or she will normally teach in the Junior school.

All Infant schools and departments are co-educational, and are staffed entirely (with rare exceptions) by women. Junior schools and departments may be co-educational or single-sex; the latter usually only when numbers are large. In co-educational Junior schools the Head Teacher may be a man or a woman, and the staff invariably includes both men and women. In boys' Junior schools there are not infrequently some women teachers, usually taking the younger children,

or such specialist subjects as music and art. Men teachers are hardly ever found in girls' Junior schools. The numbers of pupils in Primary schools vary enormously; from (occasionally) fewer than twenty children in the charge of a single teacher to the equally occasional huge school of 800-900. The largest group of schools is that containing 200-300 pupils.

The Infants School

Life in the first year of the Infants school is very similar to that in a Nursery school; but the range of material is somewhat more pedagogical, and the children's occupations - other than free play, which is continued - tend to be slightly more organized and systematized. It is a most important function of the Infants school to introduce children gradually to the disciplines of formal learning without suppressing their eagerness to explore and enjoy new experiences.

In the Infants school the child is introduced to an environment in which he can grow and learn in many ways; by exploring his surroundings, by making things with a great many different materials and tools, by using his growing bodily skill through music and especially through the use and enjoyment of his mother tongue. Reading, writing, and number are taught as soon as the child is ready. There is no uniformity of teaching method. . . .¹

The Infants school has probably no more difficult task than that of determining when a child is psychologically 'ready' to begin to learn systematically to read, or to grasp definite concepts of number. It is the contemporary belief that a lifelong distaste for reading or inability to handle figures may be set up if a child is forced to embark upon these skills before he is 'ready' to do so, or is hurried beyond his capacity when he does begin. On the other hand, he may become frustrated and fractious if he is not allowed to begin at the right moment and thereafter to progress as fast as he can. An error either way can

¹ *Education in Britain*, Central Office of Information Reference Pamphlet. H.M. Stationery Office.

cause reluctance to learn, and backwardness, in some cases amounting to incapacity. Consequently, Infants teachers not only watch eagerly for signs of 'readiness' but fill their rooms with materials (often made by themselves) to induce it: cards with named objects, illustrated exercises in number, and so on. As in the Nursery school, habit formation, especially in matters of health and hygiene, and social training are given continuous attention.

The Junior School

In a memorable passage in their report on the *Primary School*,¹ published in 1931, the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education wrote:

... At the age when they attend the Primary schools, children are active and inquisitive, delighting in movement, in small tasks that they can perform with deftness and skill, and in the sense of visible and tangible accomplishment which such tasks offer; intensely interested in the character and purpose – the shape, form, colour and use – of the material objects around them; at once absorbed in creating their own miniature world of imagination and emotion, and keen observers who take pleasure in reproducing their observations by speech and dramatic action; and still engaged in mastering a difficult and unfamiliar language . . . These activities are not aimless, but form the process by which children grow.

Because of these characteristics of pre-adolescent children the Committee concluded that the curriculum offered them in school should be 'thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'. Its aim, they said, should be:

to develop in a child the fundamental human powers and to awaken him to the fundamental interests of civilized life

¹ Page xvii. Despite its name, the Report dealt almost entirely with what is now called the Junior school. The Committee published a separate Report two years later on *Nursery and Infant Schools*.

so far as these powers and interests lie within the compass of childhood, to encourage him to attain gradually to that control and orderly management of his energies, impulses, and emotions, which is the essence of moral and intellectual discipline, to help him to discover the idea of duty and to ensue it, and to open out his imagination and his sympathies in such a way that he may be prepared to understand and to follow in later years the highest examples of excellence in life and conduct.

Unfortunately, during the early years after the publication of the Report far too many teachers took the first sentence, about 'activity and experience', to mean that they need not worry whether children acquired any knowledge or not, so long as they were kept happily busy. The result was to bring 'Activity' methods into a disrepute from which they have not even today been wholly rescued. But, happily, the era of excessive reliance upon 'activity' to the neglect of knowledge at the primary stage is past; almost all Primary school teachers now endeavour – very many of them with conspicuous success – to preserve a just balance between the claims of knowledge, skill, and experience. The following quotations from an essay written by a Sheffield teacher¹ give a very good idea of enlightened present-day Primary school aims and practices:

The physical education activities undertaken in the Primary school should provide opportunities for throwing, climbing, building, dancing, etc., so that new skills can be learnt and old ones perfected. . . .

Primary school children are curious about the world in which they live; how clocks work, why the sky is blue, what makes the leaves fall, are some of the questions asked. It is vital that this spirit of inquiry should not be thwarted but fostered, for it is a sign of the rapid mental development taking place and is an invaluable educational aid. This is also the time when children make collections; these vary from bottle tops to elaborate books of wild flowers. This propensity can be used to stimulate interest. . . .

¹ Mr. R. T. Smith, then at Carterknowle Primary School, Sheffield.

A great deal of individual work is also done. The methods vary with the age and ability of the children – but situations are produced so that children can only attain their objective by being able to read, or write, or do a particular type of calculation. The work is related to the everyday life of the children, who are realists, keen to discover about the world in which they live, but have no use for learning without a purpose, no use for inert ideas.

Attention should be given to speech throughout, from the counting and nursery rhymes of the Infant school to the poetry readings and discussion groups of the Junior school. Dramatic work is also an opportunity to extend and improve speech, but the example of speech which the teacher sets is probably the greatest factor in producing clarity, correct pronunciation, and pleasant intonation in the speech of the children . . . every lesson is a speech-training lesson.

. . . Practically all children except those who are backward or retarded should be able to read for information and pleasure, and have 'developed the habit of reading' before they leave the Primary school. The backward readers will need special teaching of a remedial nature before they leave because the difficulties of learning to read increase greatly as the child gets older, and if unable to read they will not be able to profit from the more specialized courses in the Secondary school. In the case of children who are only retarded, once having caught up with their fellows they should return to their own class. The methods and type of work done by the backward children of low intelligence should enable them to work to capacity.

All children should be able to write simple letters, accounts of school journeys, or diaries, or attempt creative writing, such as adventure stories, plays, or poems. The writing should not necessarily be an end in itself but be correlated with other subjects. The methods of teaching spelling, grammar, and punctuation will depend upon the class, but their purpose should be that the written work shall be intelligible and interesting.

The rate of progress at mathematics will depend on the ability of the children, but by the time they reach the end of the Junior school they should know the fundamental rules and have a knowledge of geometrical forms. It is most important that the mathematics should be based on the everyday life of the children, and the mathematical concepts arrived at by counting, handling money, and measuring with scales, clocks, rulers, etc.

Children of this age are sensitive to beauty, and the aesthetic experience of music, poetry, art, and drama are of great value, not only from the pleasure they give but by enriching the child's personality. Often an aesthetic experience in childhood is responsible for the awakening of latent talent.

Art and craft work, though often carried out as ends in themselves, are more usually an extension of work done in another subject.

This teacher pointed out, quite rightly, that the handling of these subjects, whether they are being taught as 'ends in themselves' or as an 'extension of work done in another subject', becomes more difficult towards the end of the primary stage, because children then 'tend to become critical of their own efforts'. So it is the task of the teacher:

by the use of new media and by a careful but stimulating approach, to help them to use their more mature judgement and skill without losing all spontaneity and creativeness which characterizes so much of the art and craft work of younger children.

Finally, much of the success of good Primary school teaching, said the writer, has been due to recognition of the principle that:

Good emotional development is essential during the period of childhood. Many forms of psychoneurosis are known to have their origins in childhood, and recognition of mal-adjusted children can do much to obviate unnecessary suffering. Such children are usually referred to the child guidance clinic for expert attention from the educational psychologist and the psychiatrist.



Spontaneous play in an Infants' school

A Junior class learning to make music





Infants serve the mid-day meal

But, invaluable as is the expert assistance of the psychologist, or the psychiatrist in severe cases of maladjustment, he correctly claims that:

The most important way of ensuring the good emotional development of the children is to have a class teacher who is stable and mature in character, capable of sympathy and understanding without becoming involved in possible emotional conflicts.

It should be remembered that the concept of primary education which is illustrated by these quotations is a very recent development; though individual teachers were previously attempting to do something along these lines, general acceptance of the idea that primary education is a first stage in a process of education which should go on throughout life may be said to date from the 'Hadow' Report on *The Education of the Adolescent*, published in 1926. This Report first officially advocated that all education up to the age of eleven should be regarded as Primary education, all school education beyond that age as Secondary education. Subsequent reports of the Consultative Committee, on *The Primary School* (1931) and *Nursery and Infant Schools* (1933), set out in detail the aims, content, and methods to be desired in the primary stage; and the history of the Primary school ever since has been largely a working out in practice of the ideals embodied in those reports.

But one sombre and dissonant feature must be recorded. Once the principle of a primary stage was accepted – as it very quickly was – it became an important part of the function of the Primary school to prepare children for secondary education. Owing to the circumstances of the times pursuit of this perfectly proper objective came sharply into conflict with that of giving children an education that would be satisfying to them in their present state of maturity and experience. Teachers recognized that, in the words of the Hadow Committee,¹ the essential aim of the Primary school:

must be to aid children, while they are children, to be healthy and, so far as is possible, happy children, vigorous

¹ *The Education of the Adolescent*, page xvi.

in body and lively in mind, in order that later, as with widening experience they grow towards maturity, the knowledge which life demands may more easily be mastered and the necessary accomplishments more readily acquired.

But, because of the opportunities which had from 1907 been offered to Elementary school-children to gain by means of scholarships 'free' places in Secondary schools, opportunities which ambitious parents had always seized with avidity, Primary school teachers (and especially those in the Junior department) remained perpetually subject to strong pressure to direct a large part of their energies to ensuring that as many pupils as possible secured entry into the Secondary school. Consequently, the Government's White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction*, published in 1943, had to admit that:

Instead of the Junior schools performing their proper and highly important function of fostering the potentialities of children at an age when their minds are nimble and receptive, their curiosity strong, their imagination fertile and their spirits high, the curriculum is too often cramped and distorted by over-emphasis on examination subjects and on ways and means of defeating the examiners. The blame for this rests not with the teachers but with the system.

Though the 'system' was radically altered by the Education Act, 1944, which abolished 'elementary' education and introduced secondary education for all children, parental pressure persisted and indeed became intensified, its objective now being to get children into the Grammar School, and to avoid their being sent to the newly-established Secondary Modern school. And so, alas! some Primary schools continued to allow their curriculum to be 'cramped and distorted by over-emphasis on examination subjects'. As the new secondary schools began to offer increasingly attractive courses, and in particular courses leading to the G.C.E., this pressure from parents for examination successes tended to diminish somewhat, but it is still strong enough in many places to prevent realization of the ideal aimed at by the Consultative Committee, in its 1931 Report, that the Primary school curriculum should be

regarded as "not only consisting of lessons to be mastered, but as providing fields of new and interesting experience to be explored".

In respect of curriculum and teaching methods Junior schools today fall into three broad categories. There is, first, a small, and happily decreasing, category in which a curriculum closely resembling that of the lower half of the pre-war Elementary school is mediated by formal class teaching methods: exposition by the teacher followed by response from the class in the forms of oral replies to questions from the teacher and written exercises based on the exposition of such textbook reading as is prescribed by the teacher. Secondly, there is a large, and growing, category which offers a wider and more liberal curriculum and makes extensive use of individual and group methods of learning, giving children a great deal of freedom to determine the particular jobs of work they will do, how they will carry them out, and the speed at which they will progress, believing that the development of innate powers through the pupils' supervised and guided 'activity and experience' is more important than the accumulation of knowledge – though the better among these schools are keenly aware that it is essential for their pupils to acquire basic knowledge and master basic learning skills. Thirdly, there is the category of Junior schools – I believe a slowly decreasing one – which ranks success in the 'Eleven-plus' above all other aims. Schools in this category may or may not offer a liberal curriculum and employ informal methods during the earlier years, but in the last year, if not before, effort is concentrated on the examination subjects: formal English, formal arithmetic, and 'intelligence'; and all children thought at all likely to secure Grammar school places are systematically drilled in exercises such as they will get in the 'Eleven-plus'. It is in these schools that the most rigid 'streaming' of children into classes as nearly level as possible in intellectual ability and academic attainments is to be found. One must, of course, add that these categories overlap very considerably, and that within a single school there may be found classes exemplifying each. Variety, even dissonant

variety, is part of the price we pay for the very great freedom given to the teacher.

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Secondary Education

By its organization of the statutory system of public education in three progressive stages, and by requiring that the first, the Primary stage, be concluded not later than the twelfth birthday, the Education Act, 1944, made a period of full-time secondary education compulsory for all children attending grant-aided schools. By raising the upper age-limit for compulsory full-time education from fourteen to fifteen (with provision for a later raising to sixteen) it ensured that the period of secondary education should not be less than three years, and by permitting the education of 'senior pupils' to continue until the nineteenth birthday made it possible for any child to stay in a Secondary school for seven years, or even rather more.¹

But the 1944 Act did much more than make secondary education compulsory for all children. In Section 8, after laying upon the local education authorities the duty to see that in their areas there were 'sufficient' schools providing primary education and secondary education, it went on to instruct them that:

the schools available for an area shall not be deemed to be sufficient unless they are sufficient in number, character, and equipment to afford for all pupils opportunities for education offering such variety of instruction and training as may be desirable in view of their different ages, abilities and aptitudes, and of the different periods for which they may

¹ Section 3 of the Education (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1948, by reducing the minimum age at which a child could be transferred from Primary to Secondary education to ten and a half, made possible a stay of eight and a half years in a Secondary school. Section 8 of the Education Act, 1946, had previously made clear that release from compulsory education took place only at the end of the term in which a child attained the 'leaving age'.

be expected to remain at school, including practical instruction appropriate to their respective needs.

This definition imposes upon the local education authorities a statutory obligation to secure the provision of different kinds of secondary education. It follows that they must devise means of discovering, so far as possible, towards the end of the primary stage, what particular kinds of secondary education children seem most suited for.

Both different kinds of Secondary schools, and means of testing children's capacities, were available in 1945. Since 1902 there had developed in England and Wales three clearly distinguishable types of post-primary education, given in three separate groups of schools: the recognized Secondary schools (which were all 'Grammar' schools), the group of quasi-vocational schools known generically as Junior Technical schools, and the various kinds of Senior Elementary schools. The Government, fortified by the 1938 Report of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education (the 'Spens' Report),¹ which recommended that all three groups should be recognized as Secondary schools, and by the Report of a committee set up in 1941 by the President of the Board of Education (the 'Norwood' Report),² which discovered that there were three types of children ideally suited for these three kinds of education, in 1943 accepted the idea of a tripartite organization of secondary education: in Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools. In doing so, however, the Government emphasized that they did not regard this arrangement as a rigid and inflexible one.

The Grammar schools were those which had previously been officially recognized 'Secondary' schools. The Secondary Technical schools comprised the schools previously known as Junior Technical, Junior Art, and Junior Commercial schools.

¹ *Secondary Education, with Special Reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High schools*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1938.

² *Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1943.

The Secondary Modern schools were the promoted Elementary schools.¹

It is difficult to see what else the Government could have done. Any large-scale reorganization of the schools would inevitably have delayed the introduction of secondary education for all, even had there been agreement about how to reorganize. But there was not; the only alternative proposal, to provide secondary education in 'multilateral' or 'comprehensive' schools taking all the children in a given geographical area, was distasteful to the majority of professional and public opinion, had never been tried in this country, and had been firmly rejected by the 'Spens' Committee – except on an experimental basis in favourable circumstances² – and would in any case have demanded a building programme quite beyond the country's capacity at the time.

But, most unhappily, for many years these three groups of schools had been accorded by the public very different degrees of esteem. The Grammar school stood easily highest, as the gateway giving access to professional and executive rank in employment. The Junior Technical group – usually entered at twelve or thirteen – was regarded as a 'second-best' for those who had failed to secure one of the coveted Grammar school places. The Senior Elementary school was the school in which remained those who were manifestly not capable of, or were uninterested in, more advanced education. The educational implications were inextricably entangled also with social and economic implications; the Grammar school was regarded as socially superior to the Junior Technical school, and as leading to better-paid and (a crucial point in the pre-war days of widespread unemployment) more secure employment. The Junior Technical school, giving entry into skilled trades, had similar, though not so highly prized, economic and social advantages. The Senior Elementary school offered neither of these advantages, and consequently stood much the lowest in public esteem.

¹ 'All-age' schools, though containing senior pupils, were (and still are) officially classified as Primary.

² See Report, pages xix-xxii.

Just as there were different kinds of Secondary schools standing available in 1945, so there were well-tried means of determining the capacity of children to undertake the education given in at least one of them: the Grammar school. Ever since the introduction in 1907 of the 'free place' system, whereby a fixed proportion (usually 25 per cent) of the annual entry into maintained Secondary schools had to be pupils from Elementary schools whose tuition fees were paid by their local education authorities, the authorities had been constantly refining and improving the techniques by which they selected children for the award of scholarships to the Grammar school. From 1945 onwards this selection machinery was adopted to serve as the means of allocating children to appropriate Secondary schools.

Again, it is difficult to see what else the authorities could have done. Thanks principally to the introduction (as early as the 1920s), and progressive improvement, of standardized objective tests of 'intelligence', and later of attainment in formal English and arithmetic, the selection techniques in general use in 1945 were already the most accurate instrument known for predicting capacity to undertake Grammar school studies: and they have been greatly improved since then. Nevertheless, it has to be recorded that since 1945 the 'Eleven-plus', as it is universally known, has been the cause of more anxiety, frustration and disappointment than any other feature in the English educational system: in fact, it would hardly be an exaggeration to say than all the other features combined.

This is not the place to examine in detail the reasons for the distress caused by the Eleven-plus to parents and their children; it has been done with admirable thoroughness and objectivity in a report¹ edited by Professor Philip Vernon, who knows at least as much about the subject as anyone in the country; and in any case the primary purpose of this book is to describe the English educational system, not criticize it. But without some such explanation as the foregoing it is not possible to under-

¹ *Secondary School Selection*. A British Psychological Society Inquiry. Edited by P. E. Vernon. Methuen, 1957.

stand recent developments in the organization of secondary education.

The Eleven-plus is administered by the local education authorities. The procedures they use vary considerably in detail but in total are remarkably similar. The following are the techniques most generally employed:

(a) Standardized objective tests of intelligence (or 'verbal reasoning', as they are now being commonly called).

(b) Tests, usually objective and frequently standardized, of attainment in formal English and arithmetic.

These two means are employed by the very large majority of authorities. They are usually checked by

(c) Reports from Primary school Head Teachers.
and frequently by

(d) Scrutiny of records of children compiled over the period of primary education.

A few authorities make a regular practice of interviewing parents, but generally speaking interviews are restricted to doubtful cases.

The standardized objective tests are usually purchased by the authorities from one of two sources: Moray House, the teacher training centre in Edinburgh University, at which the compiling and standardizing of objective tests was begun, and developed on a large scale, from about 1925 by the then Principal, the late Sir Godfrey Thomson; and the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales.

The tests are ordinarily given (usually in February or March) to the children in their own schools, by their own teachers, who then mark the tests according to the instructions supplied to them (which allow for no personal opinions about the correctness or incorrectness of answers) and, again in accordance with instructions, convert the 'raw' scores into 'standard' scores. The scripts and the marks are then sent to the local education office, where the marks are checked, and the examinees from all the schools in the authority's area are ranged in a single order-of-merit.

An Examination Board appointed by the local education

authority then decides how far down this order-of-merit candidates may be allocated to Grammar schools without further consideration, and similarly, how far up from the bottom of the order the candidates may be allocated at once to Secondary Modern schools. The point at which the upper line is drawn will be largely determined by the proportionate number of Grammar school places available in the area; there is no absolute standard by which children qualify for entry into the Grammar school, and it is still one of the main causes of complaint that there is great disparity between L.E.A. areas – and districts within areas – in the provision of Grammar school places.

Ordinarily, not all the Grammar school places are allocated by this first selection; a number are reserved for ‘border-zone’ pupils, that is, for candidates whose names appear between the upper and the lower lines that have been drawn. A very great deal of care is given by the local education authorities to ensure that the most accurate allocation possible is made of the ‘border-zone’ candidates; specimens of their school work may be called for, additional tests given them, teachers and parents – and even occasionally the children themselves – consulted. A few authorities have used the ‘house-party’ method for sorting out difficult border-zone cases.

The foregoing is but a generalized (and simplified) account of typical testing procedure; for a detailed analysis of the techniques being used in 1955–56 the reader is referred to *Admission to Grammar Schools*,¹ a research study made by two senior officers of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, Messrs. D. A. Pidgeon and A. Yates. The warning must be given, however, that this analysis holds good only for that school year. Most local education authorities review their procedure annually, and many make changes. Moreover, since the publication of *Admission to Grammar Schools* a number of authorities have, for various reasons, ‘abolished’ the Eleven-plus: that is to say, they have abandoned some of the techniques, or spread the tests over a longer period, or otherwise

¹ Newnes Educational Co., Ltd., 1957.

rendered the selection procedure more innocuous and less obvious. This is in areas where tripartitism still obtains; in other areas the Eleven-plus has disappeared, or is in process of disappearing, because the organization of secondary education there no longer requires it.

Types of Secondary Schools

At the time of writing, secondary education is still very largely organized on the tripartite basis of Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools. But for some years two trends have been breaking down the rigidity of the original division: the amalgamation of segregated schools into Comprehensive or Bilateral schools and the introduction into Secondary Modern schools of academic courses similar to (though less advanced than) those given in Grammar and Technical Secondary schools. More recently experiments have been begun with an organization which cuts the secondary stage horizontally into two periods, and provides a common school for all children during the first period.

The greatest number of amalgamations has been into Bilateral schools. Bilaterals are Secondary schools "organized to provide for any two of the three main elements, i.e. Grammar, Technical, Modern, in clearly defined sides".¹ The number of Bilateral schools recognized as such by the Ministry of Education began to rise rapidly from about 1955; but the officially recognized schools make up only a relatively small proportion of the schools which are in fact bilateral. The 'unrecognized' Bilaterals include the large and growing number of Secondary Modern schools which make permanent provision for a 'Grammar' course in which pupils are prepared for the examinations leading to the General Certificate of Education. In 1959 some 1,000 Secondary Modern schools (out of 3,800) entered nearly 20,000 candidates for the G.C.E. Most of these schools had permanent 'Grammar' courses.

The Comprehensive school was officially defined in the same

¹ Ministry of Education Circular 144, dated 16th June 1947.

Circular as a Secondary school "intended to provide for all the secondary education of all the children in a given area without an organization in three sides". Few schools in the country, even among the 111 officially recognized as Comprehensive (in 1959) are fully comprehensive in the terms of that definition. Many of the recognized Comprehensives are single-sex schools. In many cases the Comprehensives do not receive all the able children in their district, because parents can, and do, send them to neighbouring Grammar schools, or to independent schools. Some of the smaller Comprehensives cannot provide a sufficiently wide range of courses to justify the term "all the secondary education of all the children".

There are also one or two recognized Multilateral schools, that is, schools "intended to provide for all the secondary education of all the children in a given area, and [including] all three elements, i.e. Grammar, Technical, and Modern, organized in clearly defined sides".¹ As a recognized type the Multilateral has never counted many adherents, and it appears to be dying out. But in the literal sense of the term - 'many-sided' - most of the Comprehensive and many Secondary Modern schools are multilateral, their courses being provided in 'clearly defined sides'.

Here and there in the country are to be found other types of Secondary school, both new and old. The most frequent is the school with a selective entry which offers its pupils a somewhat less rigorous academic curriculum than that of the Grammar school; this type of school not infrequently carries a pre-1944 title - Intermediate, Central, Area, or Higher Grade. It was in the Ministry's 1958 Report distinguished from the non-selective Secondary Modern school, and placed in a category called 'Other Secondary Schools'. There are a few schools taking in both selective and non-selective entries, and there are occasional 'School Bases' on which autonomous schools providing respectively Grammar, Technical, and Modern education are located on the same site and share some of the facilities provided. An interesting example of the School

¹ Circular 144.

Base is the Hayward Schools at Bolton in Lancashire, where a Grammar school, a Technical-Modern Bilateral school, and a Modern school are grouped together.

A recent development, first launched in Leicestershire in 1957, and proposed between then and 1959 by several other local education authorities, involves the breaking of the secondary stage into two parts. Several schools in a district receive all the entrants from the Primary schools and retain them until the age of fourteen or fifteen, thus becoming in effect 'junior Comprehensives' (though usually called 'High Schools'). In the same district is a single school, usually a former Grammar school, which receives at fourteen all the children whose parents wish them to go on to more advanced secondary studies. This experiment has not at the time of writing been working for a sufficient length of time to judge of its success. The principal arguments urged in its favour are that it removes the necessity for any Eleven-plus examination, and makes possible much more effective and varied sixth form courses. Its protagonists also claim that by this form of organization teachers with special qualifications for either junior or senior secondary work can be more effectively concentrated, and thus more efficiently used.

Despite the very rapid growth of deviations from the strictly tripartite organization, it must be repeated that secondary education in England and Wales is still predominantly organized in separate Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools. The following statistics indicate how large are the blocks of segregated schools, and how small by comparison those of the deviationists.

January, 1959.

GRAMMAR (INCLUDING GRAMMAR-TECHNICAL) SCHOOLS		PUPILS
Maintained	1,252	641,044
Direct Grant	174	104,082
Total	1,426	745,126

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS		PUPILS
Maintained	264	99,224
Direct Grant	5	837
Total	269	100,061
MODERN SCHOOLS		
Maintained	3,808	1,595,559
COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOLS		
Maintained	111	107,186
BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL SCHOOLS		
Maintained	58	37,319
OTHER SECONDARY		
Maintained	222	112,661
'ALL-AGE' SCHOOLS	1,685 (about)	100,000

These figures are from the Ministry of Education's annual report for 1959. It will be seen that over 2,400,000 children were in segregated schools, but (excluding 'all-age' schools) only just over 250,000 in other types. Succeeding reports may be expected to show progressive growths in the number of the latter: nevertheless it seems likely that a considerable time must elapse before these outnumber the segregated schools.

Functions of the Schools

The Grammar school is by many centuries the oldest type of Secondary school in the country – it can trace its ancestry back in an unbroken line to the beginning of the seventh century A.D. Its historical function has been to give an academic education which serves as a foundation for University studies. Since the establishment in 1902 of a statutory system of secondary education it has done so by providing:

a general course lasting for about five years in which the

treatment of all subjects and groups of subjects but notably languages (classical and modern), mathematics, and science, follows a predominantly logical development; and . . . a subsequent intensive course in the 'sixth form' covering a narrower range of studies, which for many boys and girls leads naturally on to studies at the university level.¹

'The distinguishing feature of both courses', continues the Ministry's pamphlet, "lies not so much, perhaps, in their content as in their length, in the scholarly treatment of their content, and in the stern intellectual discipline that they afford.' This remains true today; consequently the Grammar school course is appropriate only for the intellectually very able boy or girl. Over the country as a whole about one child in five is admitted into a Grammar school, but the proportion differs greatly in different L.E.A. areas, and in districts within areas; it ranges from not much more than 10 per cent to over 60 per cent in one or two Welsh counties, and over 40 per cent in a few districts in England.

The subjects normally studied in Grammar schools are English language and literature, modern foreign languages (French almost always, German frequently, Italian, Spanish, and Russian occasionally), classical languages (this usually means Latin; Greek is rare), history, geography, mathematics pure and applied (the latter not always), chemistry, physics, biology (the last more frequently in girls' schools, often to the exclusion of physics), art, music, woodwork and/or metalwork for boys, and housecraft for girls, and religious education, which is compulsory. Physical education is given in all schools, and is supplemented by organized outdoor games and athletic sports. In boys' schools cricket and football (usually Association) are universal, with hockey and lawn tennis as subsidiaries; in girls' schools hockey, basketball and lawn tennis are practically universal.

To the foregoing subjects enterprising Grammar schools will be found adding for their older pupils one or more of

¹ *The New Secondary Education*. Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 6. H.M. Stationery Office, 1947, page 25.

engineering, technical drawing, architecture, economics, commercial subjects (usually for girls), and occasionally philosophy. Some Grammar schools do gardening and a few provide an agricultural or horticultural course.

An important feature of Grammar school life – today found widely in the other types of Secondary schools as well – is a great range of voluntary clubs and societies pursuing their activities wholly or mainly outside school hours. In an investigation I made in 1948 I was able to list over sixty different activities thus pursued, though many of these were confined to relatively few schools. Most schools have musical and dramatic societies, many have literary, debating, and scientific societies; the clubs range from chess to mountaineering, and from French or German ‘circles’ to glider or model aeroplane meets. Apart from the intrinsic value of these pursuits, they provide admirable training grounds for the learning of responsibility, as they are for the most part organized and run by pupils. Other training grounds for responsibility – also being today widely adopted by the other types of secondary schools – are the prefect and monitor systems, and the organization of schools in ‘Houses’, which gives additional scope for responsible posts, as well as providing an outlet for healthy rivalry.

All Grammar schools prepare their pupils to take the external examinations for the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.), and a majority of their pupils sit these examinations, ordinarily between the ages of fifteen and eighteen. The examinations can be taken at two main levels, Ordinary and Advanced (there is also a Scholarship level, higher in standard than the Advanced); and they are ‘Subject’ examinations, that is to say, passes are given for individual subjects, not groups of subjects, as was the case with the School Certificate which, along with the Higher School Certificate, was superseded by the G.C.E. in 1951. A G.C.E. can be gained by passing in one subject only at the Ordinary level; and a candidate may go on adding other subjects indefinitely, at Ordinary or Advanced level, or both. A G.C.E. examination may not be taken by a



Housecraft and woodwork in Secondary Modern schools





One of London's Comprehensive schools

candidate under the age of sixteen (on 1st September in that year) unless:

the head teacher certifies that it is desirable on educational grounds to enter him earlier, and that he has pursued a course of study with such competence that it is probable he will pass the examination in the subjects for which it is proposed to enter him.¹

Large numbers of Grammar school pupils under the age of sixteen are entered, usually for examinations at the Ordinary level.

A G.C.E. carrying passes in appropriate subjects and at required levels gives exemption from University entrance examinations and from the preliminary examinations of all the main professional associations. University requirements vary with Faculties and Departments, but the absolute minimum is a pass in English language and in four or five other subjects of which two at least must be passed at the Advanced level. The State scholarships awarded by the Minister of Education are given on G.C.E. results. The professional bodies' requirements are collected together in the Ministry of Education Circular 227, which is revised periodically.

The examinations for the G.C.E. are administered by the following nine examining boards. Eight are University boards; the Associated Examining Board, which was established in 1953 and held its first examinations in 1955, is administered by the City and Guilds of London Institute on behalf of various industrial and technical organizations.

Southern Universities' Joint Board for School Examinations (Universities of Bristol, Reading, Southampton, and Exeter).

Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate.

University of Durham Matriculation and School Examination Board.

London University Entrance and School Examinations Council.

Joint Matriculation Board (The Universities of Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham).

¹ *The Schools Regulations*, 1959 (S.I. 1959, No. 364). Regulation 15.

Oxford Local Examinations.

Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examinations Board.

Welsh Joint Education Committee.

Associated Examining Board for the General Certificate in Education.

Secondary Technical Schools

The distinguishing feature of the Secondary Technical school, wrote the Ministry of Education in 1947,¹ is:

relationship to a particular industry or occupation or group of industries and occupations. . . . [It] caters for a minority of able children who are likely to make their best response when the curriculum is strongly coloured by [industrial or commercial] interests, both from the point of view of a career and because subject-matter of this kind appeals to them.

There are relatively few Secondary Technical schools (264 in 1959), and their number has not increased since 1945, though the number of pupils in them has nearly doubled. In view of the pressing national need to produce more scientists, technologists, technicians and craftsmen one might have expected new Secondary Technical schools to spring up in great numbers during this period, and it is still difficult to explain confidently why this has not happened. Perhaps the fundamental reason is that a considerable body of professional opinion has remained unconvinced that there is any necessity for the Secondary Technical school, as such, in the new structure of secondary education. Its critics claim that the Grammar school can do – and does – just as well or better all the more advanced work it attempts, and that the Secondary Modern school can do – and does – just as well or better all the rest.

Secondly, the Secondary Technical school, as a school for selected pupils, has had to contend with the overwhelming prestige of the Grammar school. It entered this contest severely handicapped by the tradition that it was a 'second-best', an

¹ In *The New Secondary Education*, pages 47 and 48.

alternative to be considered only when all hope of a place in a Grammar school had gone. This handicap was perpetuated, and indeed, aggravated by the fact that for years after 1945 many, if not most, Secondary Technical schools continued to receive their entrants at twelve or thirteen instead of, as did the other Secondary schools, at eleven-plus. Consequently, though the Ministry declared from the start (though not very loudly or emphatically) that the Secondary Technical school should recruit from the same levels of intellectual ability as the Grammar school, the later age of entry, coupled with the Grammar school's greater prestige, has inevitably caused it to continue to be regarded as a second, and inferior, choice.

Thirdly, in many cases Secondary Technical schools did not for years have their own separate buildings; they were housed in Technical Colleges, using accommodation, and often equipment, primarily intended for adult students. Not infrequently some of their teachers were principally concerned with adult students, and taught in the Secondary Technical school in order to make up a full week's programme.

Despite these handicaps many Secondary Technical schools have built up fine reputations, though only rarely do they manage to recruit a body of pupils of equal intellectual calibre with the Grammar school. They have been supported by a loyal, if small, body of opinion which believes them to be, in the words of a chairman of the Newcastle-upon-Tyne education committee, 'essential - not merely desirable', because 'secondary technical education has a life and vitality of its own, which motivates many children to give of their best.'¹ In the same month this opinion received support from the highest quarter; the then Minister of Education, Mr. Geoffrey Lloyd declared² that 'there was a great future ahead for the Secondary Technical schools', and that 'their influence was vastly out of proportion to their numbers'.

In the same speech Mr. Lloyd re-defined the function of the

¹ Alderman P. H. Edwards, reported in *Education*, 7th March, 1958, page 409.

² As reported in *Education*, 7th March, 1958, page 409.

Secondary Technical schools; they should, he said, provide 'courses of the Grammar school type, the only difference being that there was a more conscious emphasis on science and technology.' That is what, in fact, a great many Secondary Technical schools are doing. If one placed a typical time-table alongside that of a typical Grammar school, one might expect to note the absence from it of any classical language, and would not be surprised to discover only one modern foreign language, though there would be exceptions to this. It is doubtful whether much, if any, more time would be given, in boys' schools at any rate, to mathematics and pure science, because in recent years these subjects have received rapidly increasing attention in Grammar schools: by December 1957 over three-quarters of all boys in Grammar school sixth forms were studying science. But woodwork and metalwork would figure more prominently, and in conjunction with them measured drawing and workshop practice in engineering, building, or whatever other group of occupations the school was biased towards. Possibly less time would be devoted to history, geography, English literature, and music, but not as a rule less to art, though this might have a more commercial bias. Like the Grammar school, the Secondary Technical school enters pupils for the G.C.E., and sends some on to University; but it prepares pupils also for other external examinations, notably the Royal Society of Arts Technical and Commercial Certificate examinations. The Secondary Technical school has much closer links with the Technical College, to which it sends a far higher proportion of its pupils, than does the Grammar school; and similarly it will be much more closely in touch with local industry and commerce.

Secondary Modern Schools

The development of the Secondary Modern school since 1945, and particularly since about 1950, has been so continuous and rapid that it can only be described in historical terms. The picture here given is as it was in 1959; by the time this book is

published it will certainly be out of date in some particulars at least.

When, in 1945, the Senior Elementary schools were, by a stroke of the pen, transformed into Secondary Modern schools, the expectation (at least of the Ministry of Education) was that they would 'provide a good all-round secondary education, not focused primarily on the traditional subjects of the school curriculum, but developing out of the interests of the children'.¹ They were to be 'free from the pressure of external examinations',² and their teachers were encouraged to experiment in order to discover the most appropriate forms of education for the children in their charge.

The years since 1945 have seen a process of continuous and rapid evolution unmatched in the history of English education. Some account of this I have endeavoured to present in another book,³ but the full story remains to be told; when it is, it will prove to be as exciting and encouraging a story as any to be found in the annals of education. Suffice to say here that the evolution has been determined by two main causes, public pressures and the readiness with which Secondary Modern schools seized the opportunity offered them to experiment. Interestingly enough, by 1959 it was perfectly clear that both these causes were tending to produce the same result. The dominant trend in the Secondary Modern school was to provide 'special'⁴ courses, most of them with a vocational or semi-vocational bias. An investigation made in 1956 by the National Union of Teachers covering seventy-eight of the 146 L.E.A. areas showed that nearly fifty of these authorities had organized schemes for the development of such courses. The courses covered:

Art and Crafts; Catering; Homecraft; Needlework and

¹ *The New Secondary Education*, page 29.

² *The Nation's Schools* (Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 1), 1945, page 21.

³ *Secondary Modern Schools, An Interim Report*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1958.

⁴ Under a variety of names, of which 'special', 'biased', 'advanced', and 'extended' were the most common.

Design; Automobile Engineering; Mechanical Trades; House Maintenance and Furnishing; Practical Crafts; Craftsmanship; Rural Science; Farming and Gardening; Music; Seamanship; General Science; Electrical Science; Commercial subjects; Nursing; Academic subjects for G.C.E. The last was the largest group of all.

Some indication of the rapidity with which these courses were being taken up was given by the Minister of Education on 14th February 1958. Asked the number of children taking a fifth-form course (that is, staying at school for at least one year beyond compulsory school age), in 1949, 1953, and 1957 respectively, he replied as follows:

Year (January)	Approximate number of pupils in their fifth year at a Modern school.	Percentage of the appropriate Modern school age-group.
1949	9,000	3'5
1953	14,000	4'5
1957	21,000	7'0

By 1959 the number was almost certainly over 40,000.

Among these 'extended' courses the one which made the most spectacular advance – and caused the greatest controversy – was the academic course leading to the G.C.E. In 1954, 357 Secondary Modern schools presented about 5,500 candidates for examination; by 1959 the number of schools had risen to about 1,000, and of candidates to nearly 20,000, including 385 Advanced Level candidates. By comparison with the Grammar schools' 169,308, including 34,843 Advanced Level candidates, the number of entries was exceedingly modest; they were almost entirely aimed at Ordinary Level passes only, and averaged only four a candidate. The pass ratio – just over half – was also somewhat lower than that of the Grammar school. Nevertheless, it is a remarkable, and quite unanticipated, achievement for a group of schools intended originally for the 'non-academic' child.

But the G.C.E. was not by any means the only external examination for which Secondary Modern school pupils were being entered. Considerable numbers of pupils were being

entered for the examinations of the Royal Society of Arts – the School Certificate, the Commercial Certificate, and latterly the Technical Certificate launched by the Society in 1956. There was also an increasing number of schools taking a School Certificate examination (not so difficult as the G.C.E.) set by the College of Preceptors, and other examinations conducted by various regional bodies: the Union of Lancashire and Cheshire Institutes, the Northern Counties Technical Examinations Council, the East Midlands Educational Union, and the Union of Educational Institutions. Quite a number of boys' schools were entering candidates for the examinations leading to admission into apprenticeships in H.M. Dockyards and the Armed Forces, and examinations conducted by commercial organizations, such as Pitman, and by voluntary associations – for example, the British Red Cross – were also securing candidates. Finally, an increasing number of L.E.A.s, groups of schools, and individual schools were arranging their own local 'Leaving Certificates'. The examinations for these were usually taken at the end of the candidates' fourth year in the Secondary Modern school, and the level of attainment required was such as could be achieved by the top 30 to 50 per cent of pupils.

It should not be imagined from the foregoing that the Secondary Modern schools had become obsessed by external examinations, or even that they devoted a great deal of their attention and energy to them. There were many of the schools which not only did not take any external examinations, but whose heads were strongly opposed to doing so. Typical of this attitude was Mr. R. M. T. Kneebone, Head Master of the Beckfield County School, York, author of the best description of a Secondary Modern school in action yet published.¹ In his chapter on 'Examinations' Mr. Kneebone declared that 'we prefer the freedom of original work to that of external examinations', and that 'we have so far needed no more incentive than the good teacher and his work.'

There were many Secondary Modern school teachers who took the same view as Mr. Kneebone. But they were probably

¹ *I Work in a Secondary Modern School*. Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1957.

a decreasing number. For a variety of reasons – including a burning desire to prove to the public that the Secondary Modern school was not simply the school for the ‘failures’ – an increasing number of teachers was turning to external examinations as a means of justifying their belief that the intellectual ability of their pupils was far higher than was generally believed. And on the whole the results they were attaining vindicated this belief.

By 1959 it was impossible to talk about *the* Secondary Modern school, or to regard it as a single entity; one could only think in terms of a number of different types of Secondary Modern schools. In my *Interim Report* I attempted an analysis of the situation as I saw it in the school year 1956–57. Then I distinguished four main groups of schools; those giving little more than the old Senior Elementary school curriculum – and therefore not really providing secondary education; those giving a sound training in the basic subjects, and more advanced opportunities in one or more subjects or activities; those giving a general curriculum, without specializing in any branch but frequently allotting a greater proportion of time to art and crafts, and to social and aesthetic activities, than the normal Grammar school; and those giving a general curriculum during the first two or three years and a choice of ‘special’ courses thereafter. There were innumerable variants of these stereotypes, such as, for example, the rural school with a strong agricultural or horticultural bias throughout, or the town school with a similarly dominant technical or commercial bias, which nevertheless was not providing any ‘special’ course as such.

The same groups were still to be distinguished in 1959, but their relative sizes had changed considerably. The group providing ‘special’ courses had grown greatly at the expense, probably, of all the others, but certainly of the ‘general’ group. Many Secondary Modern schools had also been amalgamated with Grammar or Technical schools to form Bilateral schools, and a smaller number had been absorbed into newly

established Comprehensive schools, or themselves become officially Comprehensive.

The Bilateral school has provoked almost no controversy; the Comprehensive school has been a storm centre of controversy ever since it was mooted. Yet in terms of curriculum there is sometimes little to distinguish a school described as a Bilateral from one called a Comprehensive. Titles have, in fact, been changed. The four Secondary schools in the Isle of Man, which for some years received considerable publicity as being among the earliest examples of Comprehensives, were from 1957 onwards described in advertisements as Bilateral. This was not due to any restriction of their curricula, but was simply an acknowledgement of the fact that they were not providing fully comprehensive curricula. Similarly, the Nicholas Chamberlayne school at Bedworth in Warwickshire, while still styled the Nicholas Chamberlayne *Comprehensive* school, was in 1958 being advertised as a Grammar/Modern Bilateral.

There was by 1959 hardly more difference between some schools styled Secondary Modern and some of the smaller Comprehensives. Instances could be found of large mixed Secondary Modern schools offering as many as five or six 'special' courses, and entering yearly considerable numbers of pupils for the G.C.E., some of them at Advanced Level. Except that these schools were not receiving the intellectually most able children in their district (and the same could be said of a number of the Comprehensives), they were comprehensive in all but name; and the Ministry of Education's annual Report for 1958 recognized the fact.

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CHAPTER 6 | Education of Handicapped Children

SECTION 8(2C) of the Education Act, 1944, requires local education authorities, in fulfilment of their duty to provide sufficient schools, to have particular regard to:

the need for securing that provision is made for pupils who suffer from any disability of mind or body by providing, either in special schools or otherwise, special educational treatment, that is to say, education by special methods appropriate for persons suffering from that disability.

Section 34(1) makes it the statutory duty of the authority 'to ascertain what children in their area require special educational treatment', and lays down that:

for the purpose of fulfilling that duty any officer of a local education authority authorized in that behalf by the authority may by notice in writing served upon the parent of any child who has attained the age of two years require him to submit the child for examination by a medical officer of the authority for advice as to whether the child is suffering from any disability of mind or body, and as to the nature and extent of any such disability. . . .

Failure by the parent (without reasonable excuse) to comply with this requirement renders him liable 'on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding five pounds'. On the other hand Section 34(2) says that:

If the parent of any child who has attained the age of two requests the local education authority for the area to cause the child to be so medically examined as aforesaid, the authority shall comply with the request unless in their opinion the request is unreasonable.

These provisions represent a very great advance on previous legislation. The authorities' duty of ascertainment had hitherto been confined¹ to 'children who by reason of mental or physical defect are incapable of receiving proper benefit from the instruction in the ordinary public elementary schools' and to children 'unfit by reason of severe epilepsy to attend the public elementary schools'. Moreover, this duty applied only to children aged five and over. The duty to make special provision covered only five groups of children – blind, deaf, physically or mentally defective, and epileptic.² Like the duty of ascertainment, it was limited to children of five years old and upwards who were attending, or expected to attend, the public Elementary school; and it was restricted to the provision of special schools for such children.

Further beneficial changes made by the 1944 Act were that the age of entry into compulsory education was made the same for handicapped children as for normal children³ (previously it had been seven except for blind and deaf children), and that a child had no longer to be certified as mentally or physically defective before he could be provided with education appropriate to his particular needs. The omission of the latter requirement was especially happy, because having a child certified as mentally defective, and consequently segregated from his fellows in a special school – the 'looney' school as it was often called – had been a cause of deep humiliation to numerous parents. Since 1944 handicapped children have no longer been regarded as a class apart: the provision for them of 'special educational treatment' is part of the general duty laid upon local education authorities to provide educational facilities for school children suitable to their ages, abilities and aptitudes.

In order to ensure that every handicapped child shall receive appropriate 'special educational treatment', Section 33(1) of the 1944 Act requires the Minister to make Regulations: defining the several categories of pupils requiring special

¹ Education Act, 1921, Section 55(1).

² Education Act, 1921, Section 62.

³ By the wording of Sections 35 and 36, Education Act, 1944.

educational treatment and making provision as to the special methods appropriate for the education of pupils of each category.

The categories thus defined¹ are:

(a) *Blind Pupils*. Pupils who have no sight or whose sight is or is likely to become so defective that they require education by methods not involving the use of sight.

(b) *Partially Sighted Pupils*. Pupils who by reason of defective vision cannot follow the normal régime of ordinary schools without detriment to their sight or to their educational development, but can be educated by special methods involving the use of sight.

(c) *Deaf Pupils*. Pupils who have no hearing or whose hearing is so defective that they require education by methods used for deaf pupils without naturally acquired speech or language.

(d) *Partially Deaf Pupils*. Pupils who have some naturally acquired speech and language but whose hearing is so defective that they require for their education special arrangements or facilities though not necessarily all the educational methods used for deaf pupils.

(e) *Educationally Sub-Normal Pupils*. Pupils who, by reason of limited ability, or other conditions resulting in educational retardation, require some specialized form of education wholly or partly in substitution for the education normally given in ordinary schools.

(f) *Epileptic Pupils*. Pupils who by reason of epilepsy cannot be educated under the normal régime of ordinary schools without detriment to themselves or other pupils.

(g) *Maladjusted Pupils*. Pupils who show evidence of emotional instability or psychological disturbance and require special educational treatment in order to effect their personal, social, or educational readjustment.

(h) *Physically Handicapped Pupils*. Pupils not suffering solely from a defect of sight or hearing who by reason of disease or

¹ In *The Handicapped Pupils and Special Schools Regulations 1959*. (S.I. 1959, No. 365), Part II.

crippling defect cannot, without detriment to their health or educational development, be satisfactorily educated under the normal régime of ordinary schools.

(i) *Pupils Suffering from Speech Defect.* Pupils who on account of defect or lack of speech not due to deafness require special educational treatment.

(j) *Delicate Pupils.* Pupils not in any other category who by reason of impaired physical condition need a change of environment or cannot, without risk to their health or educational development, be educated under the normal régime of ordinary schools.

It is the national policy¹ that handicapped children shall be educated in ordinary schools unless their disability renders this impracticable, or undesirable – the latter either in their own interests or those of their school fellows. So far as possible, handicapped children are to be educated along with ordinary children, so that they may participate in the normal life of society.

Special educational treatment is today provided in:

- (a) Ordinary schools.
- (b) Special schools, day or boarding.
- (c) Special schools in hospitals, and
- (d) Individually to children in hospital or at home.

Just as it is national policy that, wherever practicable, a handicapped pupil shall be educated in an ordinary school, so it is also policy that 'Where a Special school is necessary, a day school is preferable if it offers a satisfactory and practicable solution';² that is to say, whenever possible handicapped children are not to be deprived of home life. Boarding Special schools and boarding Homes for handicapped pupils are to be 'reserved for those cases where there is no satisfactory alternative solution'.³

In Special schools the maximum number of children per-

¹ See Section 33(2) of the Education Act, 1944, and Circular 276, *Provision of Special Schools*, dated 25th June 1954.

² Circular 276.

³ *Ibid.*

mitted in a class is, by Regulation,¹ smaller than the number permitted in the ordinary Primary school. The present maxima are:

Children who are deaf, partially deaf, or suffering from speech defect	10
Blind, partially sighted, or maladjusted	15
Educationally subnormal, epileptic, or physically handicapped	20
Delicate	30

When classes are formed in normal schools for dull, backward, or retarded children the attempt is made – and frequently with success – to keep the size of these classes much below that of the normal ones.

The provisions of the Education Act, 1944, relating to handicapped children were designed to ‘open the way to fuller and better provision for children handicapped by physical or mental disabilities’.² They have, happily, very largely realized the hopes which inspired them. One well-informed commentator³ has gone so far as to declare that:

In 1944 probably no one thought that the section of the community which, regarded as a section, would profit most from the new Education Act would be children with physical or mental handicaps, but such has in fact been the case.

The improvement has been both in quantity and quality of provision. Between 31st December 1945, and 31st December 1957, 307 new Special schools had been opened (104 day schools, 203 boarding schools), providing over 24,000 places. A relatively small number of schools was closed during the same period, but the net gain was well over 250 schools and 20,000 places. And the quality of the new accommodation is often incomparably better than the old – though much of the latter has been greatly improved by reconstruction, redecoration and re-equipment.

Special schools are provided by local education authorities

¹ *The Handicapped Pupils and Special Schools. Regulations 1959, Regulation 9.*

² *Explanatory Memorandum to the Education Bill, 1943.*

³ Peter Quince in *The Schoolmaster*, 10th January 1958.

and voluntary bodies, in the proportion of nearly six of the former to one of the latter. At January 1959, there were altogether 810 Special schools containing 64,241 pupils and the equivalent of 5,148 full-time teachers. Of these schools 109 were Hospital Special schools containing 5,291 pupils and the equivalent of 525 full-time teachers, 679 were 'normal' Special schools (370 wholly day schools, 331 including boarders, almost always in a large majority), containing 58,950 pupils (36,584 day and 22,366 boarding), and the equivalent of 4,623 full-time teachers. 4,418 pupils (2,600 physically handicapped and 1,148 delicate) were being educated otherwise than at school, most of them, presumably, in their own homes. No statistics are available showing the number of handicapped children being educated in ordinary Primary and Secondary schools.

A survey made by the Ministry of Education in 1955¹ suggested that thanks to the large additional provision of Special schools made since the war the number of places available for blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially deaf, epileptic, diabetic, and aphasic (having speech defects) children was by then, or shortly would be, adequate to meet all demands. There were not, unfortunately, sufficient places available for educationally subnormal, delicate, physically handicapped, and maladjusted children. By far the largest deficit was (as it always has been) in the provision of accommodation for educationally subnormal children. This deficit has persisted; in January 1959, of 15,884 children awaiting places in Special schools 12,177 were educationally subnormal. This despite the fact that for years the provision of additional accommodation for such children far exceeded in quantity that made for all the other categories together – in 1957, for example (a typical year) seventeen out of twenty-six schools providing 1,696 out of 2,158 places. Moreover, an inquiry made by the Ministry in 1956 suggested that the number of educationally subnormal

¹ Published in the Ministry's Annual Report, *Education in 1955* (pages 18–43), and later as the Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 30, *Education of the Handicapped Pupil*, 1945–55. Both from H.M. Stationery Office.

children in normal schools who ought really to have been in Special schools was more than twice as large as the waiting list. There is little doubt that the reason was that Medical Officers of Health, well aware of the grave deficiency of accommodation, had in previous years refrained from recommending for entry into Special schools all but severe cases of educational subnormality. As the number of places available increased, so the M.O.s made recommendations more freely, with the result that the waiting list actually increased in size (e.g. 13,822 in January 1957 as against 12,437 in January 1956). The next largest waiting list was of delicate and physically handicapped children; 1,422 in January 1958.

Concurrently with the expansion and improvement of accommodation there have been since the war great advances in attitude towards the education of handicapped children and in the teaching methods used. The change in attitude may be epitomized by saying that special educational treatment today has precise regard not only to the kind but also to the degree of disability. This is reflected in the very varied forms of accommodation provided. That for blind children, for example, now ranges from 'Sunshine Homes' (residential nursery schools) for very young children to Grammar, Technical, and Modern schools for adolescents. In these Secondary schools pupils are prepared for university and other advanced studies, and for entry into a wide range of normal employments; in 1955, of 128 children leaving schools for the blind only twenty-eight went on to be trained in craft employments traditionally the preserves of the blind. In 1948 the Royal National Institute for the Blind (which also provides the Sunshine Homes) opened Condoover Hall, in Shropshire, a boarding-school for blind children suffering also from other disabilities. This school takes some children who are deaf as well as blind.

An important post-war development has been the distinction made between partially-sighted and blind children. Very many partially-sighted children are now educated in normal schools. Not all can be, however, and there is still a

small demand for boarding-school accommodation for partially-sighted children. To meet this demand the Warwickshire Local Education Authority, by arrangement with other local authorities, in 1951 opened Exhall Grange at Coventry, as a boarding Special school intended mainly for partially-sighted children.

Exhall Grange consists of two units: one containing sixty physically handicapped children of Secondary school age, and one for 240 partially-sighted children of all ages from five to seventeen. This latter unit is truly 'comprehensive', for not only does it cover an age range of twelve years but the range of the children's ability is from educationally subnormal to good Grammar school standard. The children are housed in seven residential blocks, and taught in six classroom blocks, in classes of twelve to fifteen pupils. The school stands in an estate of twenty-four acres, and is surrounded by gardens and spacious playing fields. The curriculum includes most of the subjects studied in ordinary Primary and Secondary schools, the difference being in method and speed of teaching rather than in the subject matter taught. Craft subjects, however, play a more important part than in most ordinary schools, and these subjects, together with out-of-school hobbies, are used to reveal aptitudes for particular employments. Great attention is paid to vocational guidance; cumulative records are built up of children's ability, aptitudes, and interests, and the help of the Coventry Industrial Rehabilitation Unit is sought in addition to that of the Youth Employment Service.

No greater advances have been made in any field of Special educational treatment than in that of the education of the deaf and partially-deaf. This is very largely due to the brilliant research and experimental work which has been done for many years by the Department of Education of the Deaf of Manchester University – the only one in the country – under the inspiration and guidance of its founders, the late Dr. Irene Ewing, and Professor A. W. G. (now Sir Arthur) Ewing. Two of the most important discoveries made in this department are that deafness can be ascertained in children only a few weeks old, and

that it is possible to begin to train them to understand speech before they are twelve months old. As a result, very many more young children than previously are now to be found in Special schools for the deaf. Parents are shown how to give their children training at home during infancy, and the children pass on to a Special school at the age of two or shortly after. In 1949 the Berkshire Local Education Authority opened Donnington Lodge, near Newbury, the first residential Nursery school for deaf children to be maintained by a local education authority. The warmth of the welcome accorded to this innovation may be judged by the fact that within three years of the school's opening the number of pupils had increased fourfold, from twenty to over eighty. Donnington Lodge receives children at the age of two, and will keep them until seven.

Post-war policy has been to provide separate boarding-schools for the deaf and the partially-deaf. There are boarding-schools for deaf children between the ages of seven and twelve at Basingstoke in Hampshire and Caterham in Surrey. For children of Secondary school age there are the Mary Hare Grammar School for the Deaf, a co-educational school at Newbury in Berkshire, and Burwood Park at Weybridge in Surrey, a Secondary school for boys which provides courses biased towards technical occupations and art.

The term 'physically handicapped' covers a wide range of both type and degree of disability. Improvements in medical treatment, especially perhaps in preventive treatment, are steadily reducing the number of physically handicapped children requiring to be educated in Special schools. In 1945 it was estimated that some five to eight children in 1,000 would require such treatment, but a survey made in 1950 showed the proportion to be no more than 1.65 per 1,000 of the school population. This substantial decrease is very largely due to the diminution of two diseases previously sadly common among children; tuberculosis of bones and joints and rheumatic heart disease.

Today, congenital abnormalities account for the largest

group of physically handicapped children. Among these abnormalities cerebral palsy usually heads the list. Very great public attention has been given since the war to children (commonly called 'spastics') who suffer from cerebral palsy, and greatly improved methods of dealing with them have been developed, though unhappily no means of preventing the disability or mitigating its severity have been discovered. In 1947 St. Margaret's School, Croydon, was opened as the first boarding Special school exclusively for spastic children; it was followed in 1948 by Carlson House, Birmingham, the first day-school solely for spastics. By 1958 there were six boarding-schools and two day-schools, providing altogether 220 places. These schools together with a number of 'spastic units' in other Special schools appear to provide sufficient accommodation for the severely handicapped. The largest group of spastic children, about 3,000 in number, can be educated in ordinary schools, and the second largest (about 1,800) in Special schools for physically handicapped children which are not exclusively for spastics.

Great improvements made since the war in the medical treatment of epileptics, and a growing belief among doctors that whenever possible the epileptic child should live a normal life, including attendance at an ordinary school, have much reduced the number of epileptic children being educated in Special schools. In 1947 it was estimated that for the whole country 1,500 places would be required; by 1953 this estimate had been reduced to 900. Moreover, as a rule epileptic children sent to Special schools now spend a shorter time there than before the war. This policy of sending fewer epileptic children to Special schools for shorter periods has placed an additional responsibility upon teachers in ordinary schools, who must be prepared to cope with occasional cases of epileptic seizure. But thanks to the use of anti-convulsant drugs, such cases are today comparatively rare, and the responsibility is consequently not an onerous one.

Delicate children remain a relatively large group – about 14,000 in 1959 – but they constitute a diminishing one, and the

character of the complaints from which they suffer is changing. There are now few cases of malnutrition, and few of tuberculosis, formerly a widespread and deadly scourge of childhood; today the chief ailments are asthma, bronchitis, nervous trouble, and debility after severe illness. The treatment grows increasingly recuperative, through fresh air, good food, plenty of rest, and long hours of sleep.

The category of maladjusted children is a new one. The number in it is considerable, but most children deemed maladjusted remain in attendance at ordinary schools, and receive treatment in child guidance clinics, of which there were in 1959 over 300 – four times as many as in 1945 – mainly provided by local education authorities. There were forty-three boarding Special schools with 1,516 places, some forty-five boarding homes (from which the children attend ordinary schools), and four day Special schools. In addition, 1,342 maladjusted children were being maintained by local education authorities in independent boarding-schools. Special educational treatment for these children unable to adjust themselves to normal social living is still regarded as being in the experimental stage. In 1955 a committee set up by the Minister of Education (the 'Underwood' committee) reviewed in its report¹ the various methods in use and laid down the general principle that:

a maladjusted child, whenever possible, should continue to live at home during treatment and attend an ordinary school; that where a child requires to attend a special school or class, it is preferable that he should continue to live at home while doing so unless it is unlikely that he can be successfully treated while he stays at home; and that, where it is necessary to treat a child away from home, the objective should be to prepare the way for his return at the earliest possible date.²

¹ *Report of the Committee on Maladjusted Children*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1955.

² Quoted from Circular 348, dated 10th March 1959.

In order that treatment should be everywhere available the Committee recommended that¹:

there should be a comprehensive child guidance service available for the area of every local education authority, involving a school psychological service, the school health service and child guidance clinic(s), all of which should work in close co-operation.

The Ministers of Education and Health both accepted this recommendation, and urged local education authorities and regional hospital boards to plan jointly the development of the child guidance service.

The category of children suffering from speech defects is also a new one, though (as with maladjusted children) children were being given help with speech difficulties by some local education authorities before the war. A grave shortage of speech therapists had, however, held up the spread of treatment. In 1945, when treatment for speech defects was imposed as a duty on local education authorities, the two professional organizations training speech therapists combined to form the College of Speech Therapists. Within ten years the number of speech therapists employed by local education authorities had increased fivefold, from 70 to 350. During the same period the number of children referred for treatment increased in as great a proportion; in 1955 it was 44,840. Few aphasic children have to be sent to Special schools, but in 1947 Moor House School was established at Oxted in Surrey to deal with severe cases; it is closely linked with the plastic surgery unit at the Queen Victoria Hospital at East Grinstead in Sussex.

Consideration of the educationally sub-normal has been deferred to the last because this category is by far the largest and presents the most difficult problem. Mention has been made of the fact that there is what appears to be a permanent waiting list (of great length) of children for places in Special schools; and this despite the fact that a larger increase in the number of places provided has been made than for any other category (between 1950 and 1955 accommodation was in-

¹ Chapter XVII, recommendation 1.

creased by 50 per cent from 15,483 places to 22,895). What is encouraging in an otherwise depressing situation is the revolutionary change in attitude towards E.S.N. children which has taken place in recent years. Previously, they were regarded (and officially described) as 'mental defectives', and classed in the public minds with lunatics. Today they are recognized as a relatively large group (from 5 to 10 per cent) of the school population which requires special educational treatment, but which given this will, most of them, grow up into useful and acceptable members of society.

The supply and training of teachers – particularly the latter – for giving special educational treatment remain, unfortunately, in an unsatisfactory state. For teaching blind, deaf, and partially deaf children in Special schools teachers must obtain specialist qualifications in addition to the qualifications entitling them to the status of qualified teacher. For teaching children in all other categories, whether in a Special or an ordinary school, no specialist qualifications are required. This despite the fact that the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers recommended in its Fourth Report, published in November, 1954, that:

teachers wishing to enter special schools should, after experience in ordinary schools, and after some preliminary experience with handicapped children, take a full-time course of additional training.

The bulk of professional opinion would agree with that recommendation. But, except for the training (previously mentioned) required of teachers of blind and deaf children, one-year courses for teachers of E.S.N. children provided by the University Institutes of Education of London, Leeds, and Birmingham, and a small provision of short courses, systematic training remains virtually non-existent.

For further reference and reading

Ministry of Education. *Annual Reports*, and biennial reports on *The Health of the School Child*.
Special Educational Treatment (Pamphlet 5), 1946.

Training and Supply of Teachers of Handicapped Pupils. (Fourth Report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers), 1954.

Education of the Handicapped Pupil 1945-55 (Pamphlet 30, reprinted from the Ministry's Annual Report for 1955).

Report of the Committee on Maladjusted Children, 1955.

All the above from H.M. Stationery Office.

CHAPTER 7

Welfare Services

THE two principal welfare services incorporated into the statutory system of public education are the School Health Service and the Milk and Meals Service. Both developed out of voluntary provision, and both were made statutory services in the first decade of the present century.

The School Health Service (until 1945 called the School Medical Service) was established by the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907. This made it the duty of the local education authorities to provide for the medical examination of all children in Public Elementary schools, and gave them powers to make arrangements (which had to be approved by the Board of Education) for attending to the health and physical condition of these children. Subsequent Acts conferred upon the local education authorities powers to provide various forms of medical (including dental) treatment, and Regulations made under the Education Act, 1918, required them as a statutory duty to provide 'certain forms of treatment, e.g. for minor ailments, defective vision, dental disease, enlarged tonsils, and adenoids.' Such treatment had, however, to be paid for by parents, except in cases of proved poverty.

The Education Act, 1944, extended the duty of medical inspection to cover also maintained Secondary schools and compulsory part-time further education, and of treatment to cover all forms of treatment, except treatment in pupils' homes; and made the provision of treatment, like inspection, free. Section 48 requires every local education authority to provide for the medical inspection, at appropriate intervals, of pupils in attendance at any school or county college maintained by them.

and

to make such arrangements for securing the provision of free medical treatment for pupils in attendance at any school or county college maintained by them as are necessary for securing that comprehensive facilities for free medical treatment are available to them either under this Act or otherwise.

The National Health Service Act, 1946, which came into operation in 1948, empowered local education authorities to make arrangements with Regional Hospital Boards and teaching hospitals for free specialist and hospital treatment for children attending maintained schools.

Section 78(2) of the Education Act, 1944, empowers local education authorities to make agreements with the proprietors of independent schools to provide for the medical inspection and treatment of the pupils in their schools. The Section states that, 'so far as is practicable', the expense incurred by the authority shall not be greater than that incurred on inspection and treatment of children in maintained schools.

Regulations¹ made under the Act require every local education authority to maintain a School Health Service, and, as part of that service, a School Dental Service. The Authority must appoint a Principal School Medical Officer and a Principal School Dental Officer, and such other medical and dental officers, nurses, and other persons as are needed to make the Service efficient. Every school nurse employed by an authority must, unless she is employed solely in a school clinic or on specialist duties, be qualified as a health visitor.

Until 1959 the School Health Service regulations required local education authorities to secure that every pupil had a general medical inspection on not less than three occasions during the period of compulsory school age (five to fifteen) and a dental inspection as soon as possible after first being admitted into school; but these matters are now left to the discretion of the authorities, who are, however, still required to keep medical and dental records, in a form approved by the Minister, for all pupils in maintained schools.

¹ *The School Health Service Regulations, 1959* (S.I. 1959, No. 363).

The authorities are still required, 'so far as is reasonable and practicable', to give parents the opportunity to be present at their child's first dental inspection, and every time he is medically inspected.

Up to 1959 it was the usual practice among the local education authorities to provide for each child the three general medical inspections required by Regulations, though a few gave four. Such 'routine' inspections have ordinarily taken place at the beginning, middle and end of compulsory school age. It is interesting to note that parents have attended the first inspection in considerable numbers, the last to a smaller extent, and the intermediate one in small numbers only. In 1958 the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education in his biennial Report¹ queried whether, in view of the greatly improved health of school-children, so many routine inspections were necessary. He suggested that some at least of the time given to these might be more profitably spent on children known to need treatment. A few local education authorities were already experimenting along these lines, and in March 1959, the Minister of Education in Circular 352 expressed the hope that "this practice will continue to be developed", since in his opinion it would be 'likely to increase the efficiency of the preventive work of the School Health Service'.

Since 1919, when the Ministry of Health was established, ultimate control of the School Health Service has lain with that Ministry. But the Act establishing the Ministry provided that the powers and duties in respect of the medical inspection and treatment of children and young persons might by arrangement be exercised by the Board of Education on behalf of the Ministry of Health; and, in fact, they have been so exercised ever since. Statutory sanction for continuing this practice was given in Section 100(2) of the Education Act, 1944, which states that:

¹ See *The Health of the School Child*, Report of the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Education for the years 1956 and 1957, Chapter VIII. H.M. Stationery Office, 1958.

If arrangements are made for the exercise by the Minister [i.e. of Education] of the functions imposed by this subsection upon the Minister of Health, then, while any such arrangements are in force, this subsection shall have effect as if for the reference therein to the Minister of Health there were substituted a reference to the Minister [of Education].

Co-ordination between the two Government Departments is secured by having the same person as Chief Medical Officer for both. Detailed accounts of the conduct and development of the School Health Service are given in separate biennial Reports made by the Chief Medical Officer; the Annual Reports of the Minister of Education include only brief notes on changes made during the year under review and the main statistics relating to that period.

In December 1958 the School Health Service was staffed by :
2,366 Medical Officers equivalent to 941 full-time officers.

1,603 Dental Officers	"	1,032	"	"
1,348 Dental Attendants	"	1,140	"	attendants.
6,721 School Nurses	"	2,589	"	nurses.
409 Nursing Assistants	"	244	"	assistants.

who carried out:

2,080,000 Routine medical inspections.

3,570,000 Routine dental inspections.

1,853,000 Special medical inspections and re-inspections, and provided dental treatment for 1,343,000 children.

Owing to a shortage of dentists the amount of dental treatment fell far short of what was required.

The estimated cost of the School Health Service for the year ended 31st March 1959, was £10,868,000.

School Meals Service

Like the School Health Service, the statutory School Meals Service was preceded by voluntary provision. But whereas many local education authorities had begun to play quite a large part in the provision of medical services before the Act of 1907 made it their statutory duty (forty-eight had a system

of medical inspection by 1905, and eighty-five employed school medical officers), few did anything about school meals before the Education (Provision of Meals) Act, 1906. Practically all the meals provided for school children were provided by voluntary bodies.

The differing attitudes towards these services was reflected in the legislation enacted before 1944. The Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, laid upon the local education authorities a statutory duty to provide a medical service, but the Education (Provision of Meals) Act, 1906, imposed no such duty. It merely gave the authorities permissive powers to assist voluntary effort or themselves to provide meals for 'children attending an elementary school within their area . . . unable by reason of lack of food to take advantage of the education provided for them'.

Moreover, until 1914 the expenditure which might be incurred by local education authorities on school meals was limited to the product of a halfpenny rate; and the meals could be provided only on days when the school was in session. Though in following years the financial conditions were made somewhat less restrictive, up to the outbreak of the 1939-45 war the School Meals Service remained almost exclusively a service for the benefit of necessitous children in Public Elementary schools; and the proportion of children receiving school meals never, except during the 1921-22 depression, exceeded 3 per cent of the total elementary school population. Even by 1939 only about half the local education authorities were providing meals.

In 1941 large-scale provision of school meals was decided upon as a means of safeguarding children's health during the war, and great numbers of school canteens were erected. The results of the expanded provision were so obviously beneficial to children that the war-time policy was made permanent national policy.

The Education Act, 1944, transformed the local education authorities' permissive powers into a statutory duty. Section 49 lays down that:

Regulations made by the Minister shall impose upon local education authorities the duty of providing milk, meals, and other refreshment for pupils in attendance at Schools and Colleges maintained by them.

In 1944 it was the Government's declared intention to make school milk, meals, and other refreshment a free service; this was to be done, however, not under the Education Acts, but under an Act of Parliament dealing with social security. This Act, the Family Allowances Act, was passed in August 1946; it made the provision of a daily allowance of milk free, but did not legislate for free meals. The argument against doing so was that the School Meals Service had not at the time been extended to a sufficiently large proportion of schools to make it a truly national service. The generally accepted assumption then was that when three-quarters of the schools were receiving the Service the meals would be made free, and their cost would constitute a part of the family allowance granted to parents of children of school age. This assumption has not been realized; in fact, the charge for school meals has risen at intervals ever since the war. In 1945 the cost to parents was approximately 5d. a meal; by 1957 it had become 1s.¹

The price for a school dinner which is charged to the parent is approximately the cost of the food provided. This is on average rather less than half the total cost of providing the meal; for example, in the year ended 31st March 1957, when the price charged was 10d., the average cost of the food for a dinner was 9.16d., and the cost of overheads 11.89d., making a total cost of just over 1s. 9d.

The successive increases in the price of meals have not so far caused more than temporary reductions in the proportion of school-children taking dinners; after rising rapidly during and shortly after the war to rather more than 50 per cent, this appears now to have become fairly stable at rather under 50 per cent. In 1959 about three and a quarter million children were regularly taking their midday meal at school. By that

¹ Except in cases of established necessity; in 1959 some 8 per cent of all children taking school dinners received them free of charge.

year only 539 maintained Primary and Secondary schools or departments out of 30,390 remained unprovided with facilities for providing cooked midday meals.

The midday meal ordinarily provided consists of two courses: a meat dish with (usually) two vegetables followed by a pudding or other sweet. At a majority of schools the meals are cooked on the premises in a specially designed and equipped kitchen staffed by permanent staff. In some places a large school kitchen will cook the meals also for one or more neighbouring schools, and in others the meals for a number of schools will be cooked in a central kitchen; the meals are then put in air-tight containers and distributed by motor vehicle. All new school buildings, and many others, have their own dining hall, though often the whole or part of this has to be used also for other purposes; usually as an assembly hall or a gymnasium. In such conditions the school dinner can be, and often is, a pleasant social gathering, frequently rendered the more attractive by gay tablecloths and flower vases on the tables, and the more valuable as training by an organized system of service by pupils. But where no specific dining accommodation is available conditions can be far from agreeable, with children taking meals in classrooms on desks.

Ever since the war-time development of the School Meals Service there has been recurrent dispute between the teachers' professional associations and the Ministry of Education about the duties that teachers should undertake in connection with the Service. Section 49 of the Education Act, 1944, requires the Minister to make Regulations which shall determine, among other matters, 'the services to be rendered by managers, governors, and teachers' in the provision of 'milk, meals or refreshment', but goes on to state that:

... such regulations shall not impose upon teachers at any school or college duties upon days on which the school or college is not open for instruction, or duties in respect of meals other than the supervision of pupils (*Italics mine*).

Two main issues are involved by the italicized words: the burden upon the teacher resulting from undertaking the

supervision of school meals; and the question of whether such supervision should rightly be part of a teacher's duty. Discussions between the teachers' associations and the Ministry shortly after the passing of the 1944 Act led to the following Regulation (No. 14(c)) being included in the *Milk and Meals Regulations* 1945 (S.R. and O. 1945, No. 698):

No service by way of supervision shall be required of any teacher and no voluntary assistance to the school meals service shall be given by any teacher, if, in the opinion of the authority, it would adversely affect the quality of the teaching given by that teacher.

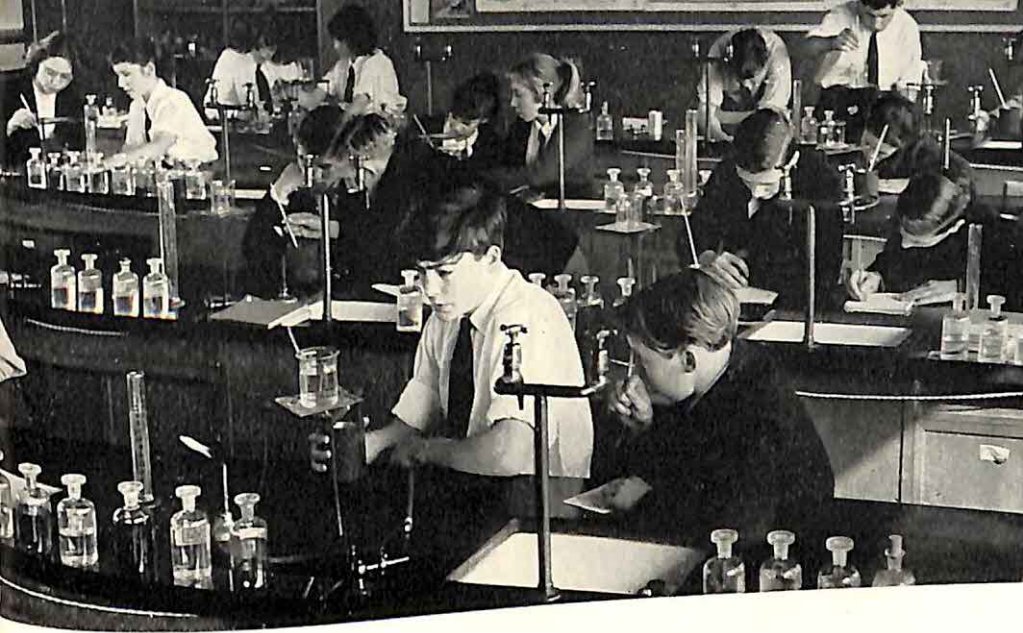
Except, however, as a reference to be cited in cases where duties are being questioned the Regulation is of little value, adverse effects being personal to individual teachers.

The same body of Regulations required (Regulation 13) each local education authority to employ an Organizer of School Meals and 'a suitable and adequate staff other than teachers':

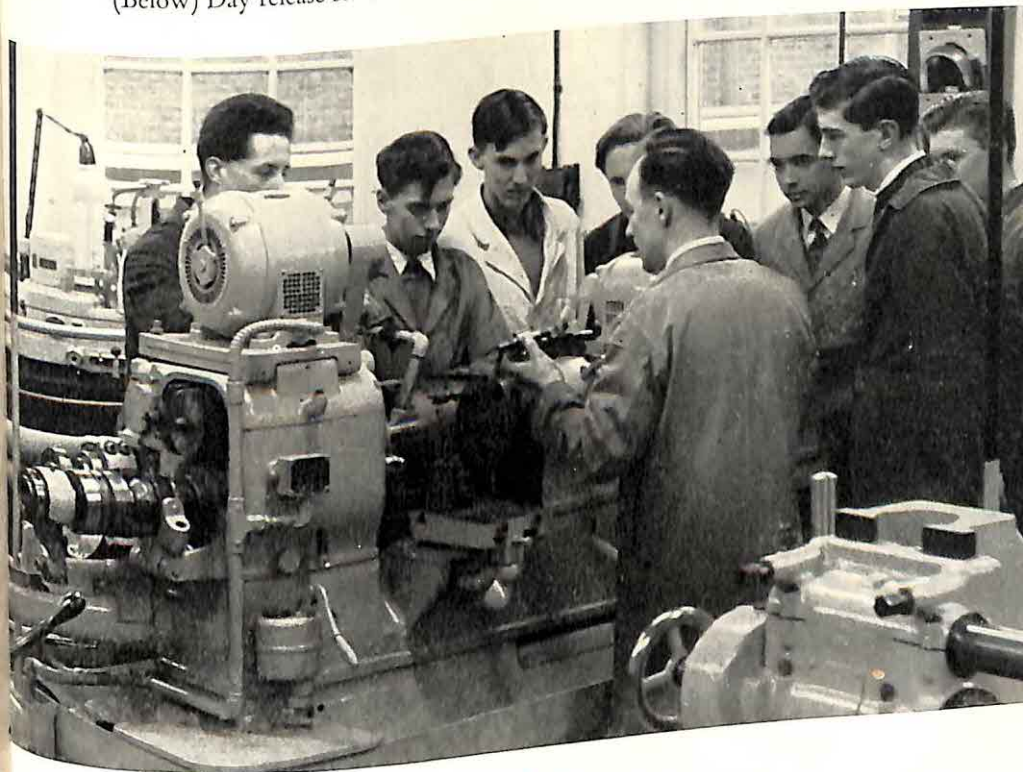
- (a) for the preparation, cooking, service, and, where necessary, transport of meals, and for washing up and other incidental matters; and
- (b) to such extent as may be needed, having regard to the power given to the Authority . . . to require teachers to supervise pupils at meals.

Such organizers and domestic staffs have everywhere been appointed. They ordinarily undertake little, if any, part in the supervision of pupils; the bulk of this falls upon the teachers, though in some schools paid assistants are engaged to relieve to some extent the teaching staffs. Following many previous discussions, the National Union of Teachers in 1957 again raised the question formally with the Ministry of Education and the representatives of the associations of local education authorities, urging the Minister to take speedy action to relieve teachers 'of the burdensome duties in connection with school meals' and 'to remove eventually the duties of the teaching staff resulting from children staying at school for dinner.'¹ In

¹ Quoted from *Education*. 18th April 1958, page 745.



A Grammar school science laboratory
(Below) Day release students in a College of Technology





Boarding school for handicapped children

March 1959 the Minister of Education, in Circular 349, made precise suggestions about supervision and urged the local education authorities to take steps to relieve teachers of clerical duties in connection with the School Meals Service.

It must not be assumed from the foregoing that there is general dissatisfaction with the School Meals Service itself, which is acknowledged to have proved of immense benefit to children's health, and in many schools a valuable aid to social training. The friction has been over the often unsatisfactory conditions in which meals have had to be taken, and over the part which teachers ought to play in the Service. On the latter question teachers have always been divided; while many (as witness the N.U.T. demand) think teachers ought not to take any part, many others would not willingly sacrifice the opportunities the midday meal offers them for companionship with and training of children. In a very great number of schools the midday meal is a happy and most useful function.

By Section 78(2) (a) of the Education Act, 1944, local education authorities may by agreement with the proprietor supply school meals to children in non-maintained – that is, direct grant and independent – schools. The same proviso is made about the cost to the authority of this service as is made about the provision of medical inspection and treatment; that it shall not exceed the per capita cost for children in maintained schools.

School Milk

The provision of milk to children at school, like the provision of meals, was begun by voluntary effort. But its later history was very different. In 1934 the Government granted funds to the Milk Marketing Board (an officially sponsored organization) to launch a 'Milk in Schools Scheme' whereby all children whose parents so desired could have daily one-third of a pint of milk for one halfpenny. Milk for necessitous children (many of whom were given two-thirds of a pint) was paid for by the local education authorities. The scheme proved popular, and by 1939 rather more than half of all the children

in grant-aided schools were taking the daily ration. During the 1939-45 war the percentage rose to 70 per cent. In 1946, under the Family Allowances Act, school milk became free to all school-children; as a result the demand for a while rose to over 90 per cent. It has since dropped slightly, and now seems to have become stabilized at about 84 per cent.

The normal daily ration is now one-third of a pint, except in the case of delicate pupils in Special schools, who may receive two-thirds of a pint. It is given, in maintained schools, on every day, except Saturday and Sunday, on which the school is open for instruction, and is ordinarily taken during the mid-morning break. The milk supplied has to be, so far as is possible, pasteurized, or failing that, tuberculin-tested, and the source and supply must be approved by the local authority's Medical Officer of Health. If liquid milk cannot be provided up to the standard required by the Medical Officer of Health, or cannot be provided at a reasonable cost, the Minister may approve the provision of full-cream dried milk or milk tablets.¹ In 1957 only forty-one schools were without a supply of fresh milk, and of the liquid milk consumed in all schools 99.93 per cent was pasteurized or tuberculin-tested.

As with school meals, local education authorities may make arrangements to supply milk to non-maintained schools; in 1959 they were supplying it to 67,189 (65.8 per cent) pupils in direct grant schools, and 421,856 (84.3 per cent) in independent schools.

By Regulations made in 1959² the cost of the School Milk and Meals Service was excluded from the block grant made by the Government to local education authorities. The Minister of Education pays 100 per cent grant in respect of the expenditure incurred by a local authority in providing milk to pupils and students up to the age of eighteen in maintained or assisted schools and establishments of further education, in providing

¹ See *The Provision of Milk and Meals Amending Regulations*, 1956 (S.I. 1956, No. 1320).

² *The Milk and Meals Grant Regulations*, 1959 (S.I. 1959, No. 410), which came into operation on 1st April 1959.

dinner to pupils at maintained schools, and in establishing and equipping premises and purchasing and replacing vehicles and other approved items of equipment for the purpose of providing school dinners.

Boarding Accommodation

Section 8(2)(d) of the Education Act, 1944 requires local education authorities to have particular regard to:

the expediency of securing the provision of boarding accommodation, either in boarding-schools or otherwise, for pupils for whom education as boarders is considered by their parents and by the authority to be desirable.

The power given to local authorities to provide boarding-schools was a new one. Several authorities – notably London and Surrey – have established boarding Secondary schools, and others have attached boarding-houses or hostels to schools mainly for day pupils. Boarding-houses and hostels are principally intended to spare children long daily journeys. Boarding-schools give priority to children whose parents are working overseas or whose employment keeps them moving from place to place, and to children who (usually because of unsatisfactory home circumstances) cannot be altogether satisfactorily educated in a day-school.

Section 50(1) of the Education Act, 1944, empowers local education authorities to provide boarding accommodation, not in a school or county college, in order to enable a pupil to attend a particular school or college judged by the authority to be specially suitable for him. This power is extensively used for pupils requiring special educational treatment. Sub-section (2) of this Section requires the authority, 'so far as practicable', to give effect to the parents' wishes about the denominational character of the school.

Clothing of Pupils

Section 51 of the Education Act, 1944, gives local education authorities power to provide a child with clothing if in their

opinion he "is unable by reason of the inadequacy of his clothing to take full advantage of the education provided at the school". This power also was granted for the first time in 1944. Thanks to full employment the power has not had to be widely used. Section 52(3) allows the Minister to make Regulations, which he has done,¹ empowering local education authorities to provide for pupils at maintained schools or county colleges "such articles of clothing suitable for the physical training provided . . . as may be prescribed." This power has been fairly widely used in schools.

Cleanliness of Pupils

Section 54 of the Education Act, 1944, empowers local education authorities to have pupils' persons and clothing examined in the interests of cleanliness by a medical officer, to exclude from school any pupil whose body or clothing is so foul that it constitutes a nuisance, or who is infested with vermin, to require the parent to have the child properly cleansed or, failing that, to undertake the cleansing themselves. This is a power which nowadays rarely needs implementing, except that infestation, especially of the hair, remains persistent in some districts, especially where housing is old and sub-standard. The percentage of children found to be infested varies from nil to 20 per cent with an average of about 4 per cent.

Youth Employment Service

Though not strictly comparable with the services described so far in this chapter, the Youth Employment Service is most appropriately discussed here. It is primarily a service to school-children, though, as will be seen, it also cares for young people after they have left school.

The present Youth Employment Service, set up in 1948, is a reconstruction of the Juvenile Employment Service first established in 1910 and modified several times thereafter. Its struc-

¹ *Physical Training (Clothing) Regulations* (S.R. and O. 1945, No. 371).

ture and function are based on recommendations made by the Committee on Juvenile Employment Service (the 'Ince' Committee, Chairman Sir Godfrey Ince, then Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Labour and National Service), which reported in 1945, and are sanctioned by Part II (Sections 7-13) of the Employment and Training Act, 1948.

The Service, which is available throughout Great Britain, is administered centrally by a Central Youth Employment Executive, which is responsible to the Minister of Labour and National Service, but staffed jointly by officers of the Ministry of Labour, the English Ministry of Education, and the Scottish Education Department. In Parliament the Minister of Labour and National Service is responsible; he is advised by a National Youth Employment Council for England, and by Advisory Committees for Wales and Scotland.

The Executive includes a careers research section, which is permanently engaged on producing and revising a comprehensive series of 'Choice of Careers' booklets addressed (in the main) to young people about to leave school. Since 1950 about eighty of these booklets have been published.

The service is operated locally by either the local education authority (in 116 out of 146 areas in England and Wales), or by the Ministry of Labour through its local offices. In charge of the local office (or Bureau, as it is usually called when the education authority administers the service) is a Youth Employment Officer; he is assisted by one or more other officers, according to the population of the area. There are about 900 full-time Youth Employment Offices or Bureaux covering the whole of Great Britain.

The first function of the Youth Employment Officer is to give vocational guidance to children who expect shortly to leave school and take up paid employment. This guidance is normally provided in two stages:

(a) A 'School Talk' is given by the Youth Employment Officer to intending leavers, preferably not later than the last term but one of their school life. In this talk different types of employment are objectively described. If there is a demand,

the 'School Talk', which is more or less general, may be followed by specialist talks on particular employments, and by organized visits to industrial or other establishments.

(b) School leavers who so desire have personal interviews with the Youth Employment Officer. At these interviews, normally only the boy or girl, the parents, a member of the staff of the school, and the Youth Employment Officer, are present; and in them the group assembled gets down to detailed discussion of jobs and prospects. To assist him, the Youth Employment Officer has previously been given a confidential report about the pupil's health, ability, educational attainments, and aptitudes; and it is his business to keep himself thoroughly well informed about opportunities and conditions of employment in his area.

After guidance comes placing in employment. For this the Youth Employment Officer's services are available to any boy or girl up to the age of eighteen, and to any employer who cares to make use of them. About one-third of all children leaving school get their first job through the Youth Employment Service. But placing is by no means confined to the first job. A third, and exceedingly important, function of the service is After Care. A Youth Employment Officer, as a matter of routine, always invites boys and girls whom he has placed to come and tell him how they are getting on, and he arranges 'Open Evenings' and other social functions to encourage them to do so. If for any reason, the first, or a subsequent, placing proves to be unsatisfactory, he will do his utmost to help the young employee to find another job.

Before 1945 the Juvenile Employment Service was used almost exclusively by the Elementary schools; and despite the fact that the Ince Committee expressed the opinion that "there should in future be one common service for leavers from all types of secondary schools", relatively little use is still made of the service by Grammar schools. This is not altogether surprising, or alarming, because a high proportion of Grammar school-leavers have decided upon the careers they intend to follow before they leave school. In some areas, however,

notably London and Middlesex, extensive co-operation has been established between the Youth Employment Service and the Grammar schools.

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Independent Schools

THE title 'Independent school' is preferred here to 'Private school', for two reasons: first, because it is the term used in the Education Act, 1944, and secondly, because many of the schools in this category are not 'private' in the sense of being the absolute property of private owners; they are conducted under the terms of trusts and administered by duly constituted boards of trustees or governors.

Even the term 'Independent' is not today wholly accurate. The schools here to be described are 'independent' in that they have to be financially self-supporting; no school in this extremely heterogeneous group receives any direct subvention from public funds. But none is now exempt from State control. Part III (Sections 70-75) of the Education Act, 1944, which came into operation on 30th September 1957, requires that every independent school shall be registered with the Ministry of Education, and gives the Minister the power (subject to appeal) to close any school he deems to be in unsuitable premises, to be providing inadequate or unsuitable accommodation, to be giving inefficient or unsuitable instruction, or to be conducted by persons not fit to be in charge of or teaching in a school. And it is a legal offence to open or conduct an unregistered school.

Section 114 of the Education Act, 1944, defines an 'Independent school' as:

any school at which full-time education is provided for five or more pupils of compulsory school age (whether or not such education is also provided for pupils under or over that age), not being a school maintained by a local education authority or a school in respect of which grants are made by the Minister to the proprietor of the school.

The word 'proprietor' is defined (in the same section of the Act) as 'the person or body of persons responsible for the management of the school'.

The Independent schools in England and Wales may be classified in various ways. The most usual distinction drawn is between the so-called 'Public' schools and those which are not accorded this title. In discussing this distinction it is essential to point out straight away that not by any means all 'Public' schools are independent schools. The conditions governing the grant of the title will be outlined later; suffice it to say here that a school's financial basis is not one of them.

The origin of the term 'Public School' is disputed. It may go back to the fourteenth century, but a simple derivation of present-day usage is found in the fact that towards the end of the eighteenth century a few boarding-schools for boys gradually became known as the 'Great' or 'Public' schools, and that they were given the latter title because they were open to boys from all over the country (and beyond it), and not restricted to boys living in the immediate locality. These schools were few in number; as late as 1861 a Royal Commission (the 'Clarendon' Commission) recognized only nine: Eton, Winchester, Westminster, Charterhouse, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, St. Paul's, and Merchant Taylors. In the legislation which followed in 1868 and subsequently as a result of the report of this commission the last two of these schools, which were day-schools, were omitted, and so for a while only the other seven schools were officially recognized as 'Public' schools.

But in 1869 the Rev. Edward Thring, headmaster of Uppingham School, fearful that the independence of his and other endowed Grammar schools was threatened by Government action, sent a circular letter to the heads of thirty-seven of the leading boys' Grammar schools, suggesting that they should establish an annual conference to defend their freedom. The response to his letter was disappointing; only twelve headmasters (and none from the seven 'Public' schools) attended the first conference. By the following year, however, there was a change of heart; thirty-four headmasters turned up,

including the heads of all the 'Public' schools. At this meeting a committee was elected consisting of the headmasters of Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Repton, Cheltenham, Clifton, Uppingham, the City of London School, and Sherborne. And so, as Mr. Vivian Ogilvie says in his attractive book *The English Public School*:¹

Every genus of the species Public school was thus represented – the old aristocrats, the glorified grammar schools of both vintages, the large city day schools and the new foundations.

The 'Headmasters' Conference' thus established, Mr. Ogilvie goes on to say:

... registered the fact, albeit unintentionally, that a certain number of schools, varying in origin and character, enjoyed a degree of prosperity and esteem that marked them off from the majority of the old endowed Grammar schools.

That was how the term 'Public school' became extended to cover more schools than the original nine. Since that meeting any school has been entitled to describe itself as a 'Public school' if its headmaster is elected a member of the Headmasters' Conference (H.M.C.). Until 1941 this was the only means of gaining the title. In that year the Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools (G.B.A.) was formed, and in the following year the President of the Board of Education, Mr. R. A. Butler, acknowledged that membership of the G.B.A. conferred the title of 'Public school'; in appointing a committee (the 'Fleming' Committee) to consider the relationship of the Public schools to the general educational system of the country he defined Public Schools as "schools which are in membership of the Governing Bodies' Association or Headmasters' Conference". That is the only official definition of a Public school that has ever been made; and it should be added that, though made by a Cabinet Minister, it carries no statutory sanction. The title 'Public school' is a courtesy title only, though one so firmly established and respected that no school not in membership of the H.M.C. or G.B.A. would dream of assuming it.

¹ Batsford, 1957, page 167.

But however much the title 'Public school' may be a courtesy title it is nevertheless an extremely difficult one to secure, and some of the conditions of obtaining it are quite rigid. It has never been granted to any but Secondary schools. H.M.C. will admit boys' schools only, and limits its membership to 200. Both H.M.C. and G.B.A. have so far admitted only Grammar schools. For a school to be regarded as acceptable H.M.C. require that it "shall be controlled in the public interest by a Governing Body created by some statute, scheme, or other trust deed",¹ and state that "in considering what schools shall be included in the List of Members or removed from it, the Committee will have regard to the scheme or other instrument under which the school is administered (taking particularly into consideration the measure of independence enjoyed by the Governing Body and the Headmaster), the numbers in the school, and, in the case of schools in Great Britain and Ireland,² the number of resident undergraduates of Oxford and Cambridge or other British Universities educated at the school". In addition, "The Committee may also take into account the proportion of boys in the school who, having passed the General Certificate of Education or other equivalent examination, are continuing their studies beyond that stage, and the quality and variety of that work".

The G.B.A. will admit to membership "Governing Bodies of Schools for Boys (including co-educational schools) in the British Isles, (a) receiving no grants from public monies (called 'Independent Schools'), (b) receiving direct grant from the Ministry of Education or equivalent authority in Scotland or Northern Ireland (called 'Direct Grant Schools')".³ It may also admit, on its own conditions, schools not so qualified.

It will be seen that by definition the G.B.A. does not restrict itself to Independent schools, and in fact a large proportion of

¹ *The Public and Preparatory Schools Year Book*. A. & C. Black, 1959 Edition, page xxiii.

² In 1958 the H.M.C. list included forty-seven schools in British Dominions and Colonies and other countries overseas.

³ *The Public and Preparatory Schools Year Book*, 1959 Edition, page xxvii.

its membership consists of Direct Grant schools; in 1958, fifty-four out of a total of 192 schools. The proportion of schools on the H.M.C. list in receipt of public funds is very much smaller, but more varied in character. In 1958, out of 180 schools in England and Wales in membership thirteen were Direct Grant, two voluntary aided, and five voluntary controlled.

Within this varied group of 'Public' schools there has always been, and still is, an inner circle of more famous, more highly reputed and – though to a lesser degree today than ever before – more exclusive schools. What the Clarendon Commission said¹ of 'the Nine' nearly a century ago remains substantially true today:

From the prominent positions they have long occupied as places of instruction for the wealthier classes, and from the general but by no means exact resemblance of their system of discipline and teaching, they have become especially identified with what in this country is commonly called Public School Education . . . Public School Education, as it exists in England and in England alone, has grown up chiefly within their walls and has been propagated from them; and, though now surrounded by younger institutions of a like character, and of great and increasing importance, they are still, in common estimation, its acknowledged types, as they have for several generations been its principal centres.

Opinions would differ about precisely how many (and which) schools should today be included in this inner circle; but it is safe to say that their number would not greatly exceed the nine of the Clarendon Commission. It is, in fact, possible to distinguish at least four groups of schools among those on the H.M.C. list: the inner circle, a second group, principally of boarding-schools, which has achieved a national reputation, a third group, again principally of boarding-schools, which has attained the title largely by studiously imitating the 'acknowledged types', and a fourth group which, starting from

¹ Quoted from Ogilvie, *op. cit.*, pp. 5–6.

humble origins, has earned the title by sheer educational merit. Included in this last group are many day-schools.

Of the 198 schools on the H.M.C. list 107 are predominantly boarding-schools, though many of these admit also day boys: in a few cases, such as Berkhamsted in Hertfordshire, up to one-half of their entry. Fifty-three are predominantly day-schools, though again some of these include boarders. Among both boarding- and day-schools the proportion of ancient foundations is very large; and interestingly enough this proportion is larger among the day- than the boarding-schools. Sixty of the 107 boarding-schools were founded before the nineteenth century, and forty of the fifty-three day-schools.

About a dozen of the independent boarding-schools are on religious foundations. The Roman Catholic schools at Ampleforth near York, Douai near Reading, and Downside near Bath, were all founded, and are conducted, by the Benedictine order. Among Anglican schools are those founded by the Rev. Nathaniel Woodard (examples are Lancing and Worksop) "to provide at moderate cost a public school education on the principles of the Church of England". Kingswood, at Bath, was founded by the Rev. John Wesley for the sons of his itinerant preachers; with Woodhouse Grove near Bradford and Culford near Bury St. Edmunds it is financed and managed by the Methodist Church; Leighton Park at Reading was founded by, and is under the direction of, the Society of Friends.

But most of the 'Public' schools, whether they are today independent, direct-grant, or maintained schools, owe their origin to endowments made by private individuals or corporate bodies. This is not entirely true of a few of the oldest schools, which were founded by the Church, and for centuries remained part of it; but even these schools were re-founded, or revived, in medieval days. The King's School, at Canterbury, for example, which is practically certainly the lineal descendant of a school founded by St. Augustine about A.D. 597, was re-established and re-endowed by King Henry VIII in 1541. Similarly, St. Peter's, York, the successor to a Royal School of St. Peter which came into being in the seventh

century, was re-founded and re-endowed by Queen Mary Tudor and her husband King Philip of Spain. Many of the older schools were founded jointly with other charities; examples are Charterhouse, founded by Thomas Sutton in 1609 along with almshouses for old men (which still exist), and Christ's Hospital, founded by King Edward VI in 1552. A number were founded, and are still managed, by craft or merchant guilds; among these the Merchant Taylors' schools at Northwood in Middlesex and Crosby in Lancashire still bear the name of their founding body. The Haberdasher Aske's School in London is unique in bearing the names both of its individual founder, Robert Aske, and of the guild to which he belonged and to which he bequeathed the funds for the founding of the school.

The greatest number of the older schools were founded by single individuals. As has been recorded in Chapter I, the oldest known example of a school founded specifically as a school is Winchester College. The example was quickly, and frequently, copied; but few of the medieval foundations made, as did Winchester and Eton, provision in their foundation deeds for boarders. More old schools than is generally realized have remained day-schools. Well-known examples are St. Paul's School in London, founded by John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's Cathedral, in 1509 (this foundation probably absorbed an older cathedral school), and the Manchester Grammar School, founded six years later by Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter. But there are throughout the country hundreds of other such schools: to give but one example, Stockport Grammar school, founded in 1487 by Sir Edmund Shaa, Lord Mayor of London and a prominent member of the Goldsmith's Company. The foundation of schools slackened in the seventeenth century, and was particularly infrequent during the eighteenth. But the rapid development of England as an industrial country during the first half of the nineteenth century led to a fresh outburst which reached its climax between about 1840 and 1860. Examples of schools founded then for the education of middle-class boys are Cheltenham College (1841), Clifton

College (1862), Malvern College (1862), and Marlborough (1843). Some of these schools (like those on the Woodard foundation) were founded with a specific religious purpose; among them is Brighton College (1845), founded by residents of the town to provide 'a thoroughly liberal and practical education in conformity with the principles of the Established Church'. An interesting example of a quite different specific purpose is Llandovery College, founded and endowed in 1848 by Thomas Phillips to be a Church school in which Welsh boys could 'study their own language, history, and literature as part of a sound classical and liberal education'.

Only one or two Public schools are twentieth century foundations. Stowe, in Bucks (1923), is one, and Bryanston, at Blandford in Dorset (1928), another. Both these were designed to be Public schools, but to incorporate new features. Bryanston's aim was to combine 'what is best in the Old Public School tradition with what experiment has shown to be sound in more modern educational systems'. The school is still interestingly different from most other Public schools.

The 'Old Public School tradition', which has made a group of English schools famous throughout the world, is largely a nineteenth century creation. Its birth is usually attributed to Thomas Arnold, headmaster of Rugby School from 1828 to 1842, but modern research has shown that, while he must still be regarded as the greatest among the reforming headmasters who transformed the English Public schools from being "the seed beds of . . . the less attractive characteristics of mankind",¹ into places devoted to the building of sound character through "responsible living, based on the ethos of the total community and reinforced and directed by the headmaster's authority and guidance",² there were predecessors who paved the way for him, and successors who, by enlarging and extending his concepts, built the tradition into a system.

¹ Professor E. B. Castle, in *The Year Book of Education*, 1958. Evans Bros., page 206.

² *Ibid*, page 208.

Preparatory Schools

'Preparatory', or 'Prep', schools, as they are familiarly called, prepare boys for entry into independent Public schools. Most of them are privately owned, though in recent years many have transferred the ownership to a board of trustees. The great majority are boarding-schools. They accept pupils from about the age of eight or nine and keep them until about thirteen and a half. About 530 of these schools, containing in 1958 over 55,000 pupils, are linked together by membership of the Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools, founded in 1892. This Association keeps an eye on academic and other standards in the schools (it is a condition of membership that a school must be 'Recognized as Efficient' by the Ministry of Education), arranges transfers, amalgamations and partnerships in ownership, runs an appointments bureau and a pension scheme for assistant teachers, provides legal assistance for its members, and organizes training courses for teachers in Preparatory schools. It keeps in close touch with H.M.C. through a joint committee for the consideration of matters of common interest.

Foremost among these is the Common Entrance Examination for entry into an Independent Public school (entry into a voluntary aided, voluntary controlled, or direct-grant school is subject to regulations made by the Minister of Education). The Common Entrance Examination is taken by boys between the ages of twelve and fourteen and must be passed in order to secure entry to an independent Public school. There are two levels of pass: for securing entry, and for securing one of the many open scholarships awarded by Public schools. Papers are set in:

English (two papers, A and B).

Mathematics (three papers, in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, each divided into A and B sections).

Latin (two papers, A and B).

French (two papers, A and B).



Open air music at a short-course residential College of Adult Education



Oxford's 'dreaming spires'

Modern idiom at Exeter



General (three papers, in scripture, English, history, and geography).

Greek (one paper).

The A papers and sections of papers are compulsory for all candidates, and success in them is a condition of passing the examination: the B papers and sections are used for 'placing', that is, for the award of scholarships.

It will be seen from the foregoing list of subjects that the education a Preparatory school boy receives is very different in content from that received by a child at a publicly maintained school. That fact, even more than the different ages at which the Public and the maintained secondary schools accept entrants, makes integration of the two systems difficult. In 1944 proposals were made by a committee set up by the President of the Board of Education (the 'Fleming' committee),¹ for the acceptance by independent Public schools of up to 25 per cent of their annual intake from maintained schools. But the scheme never came into operation, though as a result of the proposals a few independent Public schools began to accept a few pupils from maintained schools.

Other Independent Schools

In January 1959 there were 4,251 registered independent schools in England and Wales. Of these 1,477 were 'Recognized as Efficient' by the Ministry of Education. Many schools not so recognized were small: half of them had fewer than fifty pupils. Two-thirds accepted children of primary school age only. The number of such schools is constantly fluctuating but tends to decrease steadily as the publicly maintained schools improve their accommodation and equipment.

There are many well-established independent schools of good reputation in England and Wales which, either because they are not eligible for membership of H.M.C. or G.B.A. or do not wish to apply for it, are not 'Public' schools. Some of

¹ *The Public Schools and the General Educational System*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1944.

these are run by religious communities, notably communities within the Roman Catholic Church. Others are maintained by bodies, such as the Parents' National Education Union (P.N.E.U.), founded by Miss Charlotte Mason in 1892, whose purpose is to practise a distinctive educational creed. Other schools again have resulted from the pioneering work of individuals who, while not so dogmatic about aims and methods, were not satisfied by conventional approaches: an outstanding example is Bedales, a co-educational boarding-school at Petersfield in Hampshire, founded in 1893 by Mr. J. H. Badley. Much more unconventional is Summerhills School at Leiston in Suffolk, founded and still run by Mr. A. S. Neill, whose educational doctrine has achieved international recognition among those people who advocate more 'freedom' in education. Some of these pioneering schools do not even seek to be 'recognized', fearing that the conditions of recognition would restrict their freedom.

The non-Public Independent schools have their own professional associations. Among these is the Independent Schools Association Inc., membership of which is open to the Head of any school not under the direct control of the Ministry of Education and not receiving grant from the State. It has about 600 members.

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 (Both from H.M. Stationery Office.)

CHAPTER 9

Further Education

THE term 'Further Education' was introduced by the Education Act, 1944, and has a different meaning from that of any term previously used. The 'Higher Education' which the Local Education Authorities were before 1944 empowered to supply or aid included not only vocational and adult education but also secondary education and the training of teachers. Neither of these comes within the scope of Further Education. This is defined by Section 41 of the 1944 Act as:

- (a) full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and
- (b) leisure-time occupation, in such organized cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for the purpose.

It will be seen that even with secondary education and the training of teachers excluded the potential range and variety of Further Education are very great; and, in fact, both are. In the field of formal education every level of attainment is provided for from that of the boy or girl who has recently left a Secondary Modern school to that of the post-graduate student, in practically every field of knowledge or skill which is the subject of study in any educational establishment; similarly, in the field of informal education virtually every worth-while leisure-time activity finds a place.

Before examining the exceedingly varied provision made under the name of Further Education, three important points should be noted. First, that, except in one district (Rugby) there is as yet no statutory compulsion upon any person above

'compulsory school age', to participate in Further Education – or, indeed, in any educational activity whatsoever. In this respect the educational system lags behind its legislation. The Education Act, 1944 – like the Education Acts of 1918 and 1921 – legislated for a system of compulsory part-time education, in 'County Colleges', for all young people beyond compulsory school age who had not attained the age of eighteen, and who were not undertaking other recognized forms of full- or part-time education. But up to mid-1960 the relevant Sections of the 1944 Act had not been brought into operation; nor did there appear to be much likelihood that they would be in the near future.

In Rugby a compulsory 'day continuation' school was established, under the 1918 Act, in 1920, and compulsion to attend this has been statutorily enforced ever since, though only up to the age of sixteen. But though this is the only case of statutory compulsion, one must add that before the war a considerable, and since the war a large, and constantly increasing, number of young persons (in 1959 about 440,000) have been undertaking, voluntarily or quasi-voluntarily, part-time courses of Further Education because they have been released by their employers, during their hours of employment, in order to do so. In numerous cases these young people go to their classes most willingly, and they may, indeed, have chosen particular employments because these afforded the opportunity to take such classes. But in over one hundred industrial and other occupations it is a condition of apprenticeship, sanctioned by national agreement, that regular and systematic part-time education and training shall be undertaken by the apprentice; and consequently apprentices so bound cannot be said to be attending their courses entirely voluntarily: and some of them, at any rate, do not go altogether 'willingly to school'. They have, of course, the ultimate liberty to persuade their parents to terminate the apprenticeship agreement.

The second point is that, whatever defects there may be in its provision, Further Education in England and Wales has one supreme virtue; it is so flexibly organized that a student may

enter it at any level, and progress within it so far as his capacity will carry him. And the third point is that the local education authorities are statutorily bound to secure the provision of adequate and efficient facilities for Further Education, just as they are for primary and secondary education.

Most Further Education is directly provided by the L.E.A.s, and the total bulk of their provision is impressively large. In 1959 they were maintaining or assisting:

685 Major Establishments.
8,163 Evening Institutes.

29 Residential Colleges or Centres of Adult Education.

At these 8,877 establishments there attended, for longer or shorter periods, during the educational year 1957-58, about 2,400,000 students. Of these about 105,549 were full-time students, 493,000 part-time day students, and 1,800,000 evening students. (Many part-time day students were also evening students.) In addition some 50,000 students attended residential Colleges, usually for a few days only. Thus crudely stated, these figures may be misleading. Though, as will be seen, the evening students were nearly three times as numerous as the full- and part-time day students, the number of hours they put in was considerably less; and this is indicative of one of the most significant changes in the structure of Further Education that has been taking place since the Second World War: the transfer of studies related to vocation from the evening to the working day.

The provision made by local education authorities is supplemented from three sources; by semi-independent bodies receiving direct grant from the Ministry of Education, by voluntary bodies (some in receipt of grant and some not), and by private enterprise. There were in 1959 some forty establishments in receipt of direct grant; these included twenty-seven major establishments of Further Education, seven 'National' colleges of monotechnic type, and five residential colleges of 'Adult Education'.¹ In these direct-grant establishments

¹ The term 'Adult Education' means officially "the liberal education of persons of at least eighteen years of age".

there were in 1959 about 10,000 students. The provision made by voluntary bodies consists mainly, on the one hand of Adult Education and on the other of social and recreational facilities, mainly for young people. That made by private enterprise consists almost entirely of vocational education, and is provided from two sources: firms and organizations providing for their own employees, and private concerns providing it, for all who desire it, on a commercial basis.

Section 41 of the Education Act, 1944, it will be seen, draws a clear distinction between Further Education conducted formally in classes organized for instructional purposes – that is what ‘full-time and part-time education’ means – and informal Further Education, that is, ‘leisure-time occupation’ in ‘organized cultural training and recreative activities’. But in order really to understand the structure of Further Education in England and Wales one should think of it as divided into three broad fields; vocational education – that is, education directly related to specific occupations – formal ‘Adult Education’, and social and recreative activities. These fields overlap considerably; it is often possible, for example, to find in a modern languages class students who are there for strictly vocational purposes, students who are learning a foreign language as a liberal study, and students who are there because to learn a language other than their own is an enjoyable ‘leisure-time occupation’. Similarly, in a cookery class may be found students hoping ultimately to become chefs, housewives wanting to improve the quality of the family’s meals, and students who find cooking a delightful hobby. Such examples could be multiplied. Nevertheless, the three fields are in general sharply distinguished from each other.

By far the greatest proportion of students in local education authority establishments of Further Education are taking vocational courses. Among full-time students the proportion is over three to one, among part-time day students over four to one. It is not possible to make any precise estimate about evening students because, as already noted, the motives bringing them into many classes are mixed. But even assuming that all

students listed as studying 'general' subjects are doing so for purely educational reasons (which is certainly not the case), they are outnumbered by those studying subjects related to professional, clerical, commercial and industrial occupations.

The generic term 'vocational education' is not greatly used in England; we prefer the more particular terms 'technical', 'technological', 'commercial', 'art', 'agricultural', and 'professional' education. Though these terms appear to be more precise, the first has tended – and still tends – to obscure rather than clarify. Many Technical Colleges – and most Colleges of Further Education are still called Technical Colleges – include in their programme many subjects which cannot strictly be called 'technical'. Moreover, as one writer¹ has observed, "the term technical education has no precise meaning either administratively or educationally." With the increasing use of the terms 'technology', 'technologist', and 'technological education', however, it is tending more and more to mean vocational education for industrial workers which does not lead to qualifications giving professional status. The term 'technological education' is used exclusively for courses of vocational education leading directly to professional status in an industrial occupation.

The provision of technical and technological education in England and Wales is at the time of writing in process of being rationalized to form a pyramidal edifice of four storeys. As it grew up more or less haphazardly, many Further Education establishments still offer courses at many levels; but there has been for years a gradual process of segregating the more advanced from the more elementary work. This process is now being carried out systematically all over the country.

At the apex of the four-tier pyramid there are to be ten Colleges of Advanced Technology. Nine of these had by 1959 started on their new career,² and the Royal Technical College

¹ Mr. H. A. Warren, in *Technical Education*. S.C.M. Press, 1957, page 5.

² Royal Technical College, Salford; Bradford Technical College; Loughborough College of Technology; Birmingham College of Technology; Cardiff College of Technology; Battersea Polytechnic; Chelsea Polytechnic; Northampton (London) Polytechnic; Merchant Venturers College, Bristol.

at Newcastle-upon-Tyne was expected shortly to do so. When fully reorganized the C.A.T.s will devote themselves entirely to advanced studies, and in particular, one imagines, to preparing students for the examinations leading to the Diploma in Technology which was created in 1956 to be the equivalent for students in technical colleges of a first degree, with honours, of a University. A higher award to succeed the Dip.Tech., the Membership of the College of Technology, was announced in 1958; preparation of students for this will doubtless also be an important task of the C.A.T.s, along with other post-graduate study and research.

On the next level will be a larger number – probably about thirty to forty – of Regional Colleges of Technology. These also will concern themselves with advanced studies; they will prepare students for the Dip.Tech., for the examinations leading to the award of Higher National Certificates and Diplomas, and to the more advanced awards made by the professional associations of scientific and technological occupations. The Regional Colleges will also, presumably, provide courses in those scientific and technological subjects for which demand is relatively slight, and for which therefore a class of students can only be collected from a wide area.

Both C.A.T.s and Regional Colleges may be expected to have a high proportion of full-time students, and for this reason it is intended that they shall have attached to them Halls of Residence. Many, perhaps most, of their full-time students will be recruited on the 'sandwich' basis, whereby employees spend alternately fixed periods – usually six months – full-time in College and in their employment. The 'sandwich' student is not a new phenomenon in English vocational education, but he was rare before about 1955, since when a widespread and determined campaign to popularize this pattern has resulted in a spectacular increase in his numbers.

The third tier in the pyramid will be occupied by the Area Colleges. These, the main local Colleges in the areas of local education authorities, will handle work at an intermediate level, leaving the more elementary studies to the District

Colleges. A principal task of the Area College, one imagines, will be to prepare students, and in particular part-time day students released by their employers, for the examinations leading to Ordinary National Certificates and to the certificates awarded by the City and Guilds of London Institute.

National Certificates, which may broadly be described as the technician's qualification, can be obtained only by part-time study, it being a condition of their award that the student shall have been engaged concurrently in employment during the whole period of study. The certificates are awarded jointly by the Ministry of Education and the professional association concerned, which approve syllabuses drawn up by Colleges submitting candidates, and appoint assessors for the examinations, these being set and marked by the individual colleges. Certificates are granted on examination results and assessment of students' work throughout the course. Preparation for the Ordinary National Certificate ordinarily takes three years, and involves an attendance at college of about 200 hours a year. Most of the students are between the ages of sixteen and nineteen. Preparation for the Higher National Certificate ordinarily takes a further two years. By adding to a H.N.C. passes in further appropriate subjects students can qualify for associate membership (or the equivalent) of the professional association concerned, and thus acquire professional status in their occupation.

The National Certificate system, begun in 1921, now operates for the following sixteen occupations (the date of the establishment of each certificate is given): Mechanical Engineering 1921. Electrical Engineering, 1923. Production Engineering,¹ 1941. Civil Engineering,¹ 1943. Aeronautical Engineering,¹ 1958. Chemical Engineering,¹ 1957. Building, 1929. Commerce, 1939. Chemistry, 1921. Applied Chemistry, 1947. Applied Physics, 1945. Mining, 1957. Mining Surveying, 1957. Naval Architecture, 1926. Textiles, 1934. Metallurgy, 1945.

In 1959 the number of Ordinary National Certificates gained was almost six times as many as in 1938 (19,654 as against

¹ Higher National Certificates only.

3,313), and of Higher National Certificates over nine times as many (10,546 as against 1,137).¹ Nevertheless, despite these spectacular increases, no one feels happy about the National Certificates; the proportion of students who drop out of the courses before taking even the Ordinary National Certificate examination is alarmingly high, and it has been estimated² that of every 100 students who begin an O.N.C. course only ten (or fewer) secure a Higher National Certificate.

For full-time students National Diplomas are available in electrical, mechanical and production³ engineering, building, and mining.³ These full-time courses have never attracted many students; in 1958 only about 1,150 Diplomas (Ordinary and Higher) were awarded, and this was the highest number for several years.

Courses in a very large number of skilled trades are offered by the City and Guilds of London Institute, which was founded by the City Livery Companies in 1879, and whose Certificates have long had national – and indeed international – currency. For most trades there are two certificates: Intermediate and Final. The Intermediate Certificate ordinarily requires two years of attendance at College, with concurrent employment in the trade; the Final Certificate a further two years under the same conditions. For some trades the City and Guilds of London Institute offers a Full Technological Certificate; this requires at least another year's study. It is frequently regarded as a qualification for teaching the trade. The Institute also makes to distinguished craftsman an Insignia award.

Courses leading to National and City and Guilds Certificates are largely taken by apprentices released for study by their employers for the equivalent of one working day a week. As has been pointed out, the number of such 'day-release' students has grown very rapidly since the war: there were in 1959 over ten times as many as in 1939, and it is the Government's intention to increase this to over fifteen times as many by the

¹ The Certificates introduced since 1938 do not alter the ratio of O.N.C. but reduce that of H.N.C. to about seven to one.

² See 15 to 18 (the 'Crowther' Report), Chap. 31. ³ H.N.D. only.

early 1960s. As yet, the agreements made by many skilled occupations to give all their apprentices 'day-release' are not being fully honoured, partly because small firms find it difficult if not impossible to release their apprentices, but also because in some places appropriate College courses are not easily accessible.

Technical Colleges also prepare students for many other external examinations, including the G.C.E. (required for exemption from the preliminary examinations of professional associations), the external degrees of London University (some London Colleges have the right to prepare students for the University's internal degrees), examinations leading to membership of professional associations, and such nationally accredited qualifications as the National Bakery Diplomas. Commercial Colleges similarly prepare large numbers of students for examinations leading to certificates recognized as vocational qualifications.

Art Colleges frequently undertake the preparation of apprentices and other students for City and Guilds of London Institute Certificates; in fact, one can never be sure whether the teaching of some crafts will be undertaken locally by the Technical or the Art College. Painting and decorating is almost always taken at the Art College (or in the Art department in a combined College of Art and Technology), but plumbing and the printing trades are examples of crafts which may be found in either.

At the time of writing the regulations for the examination and qualification of art students are being revised. For over one hundred years the central Government has been responsible for these, but in 1958 the Minister of Education decided that the time had come for him to give up this responsibility, and he set up a National Advisory Council on Art Education to advise him on "all aspects of art education in establishments of further education", including the nature and administration of external examinations.

At present the Ministry of Education makes two awards: the Intermediate Certificate in Art and Crafts, and the National

Diploma in Design. Candidates for the Intermediate Certificate must be at least eighteen years old, and must have studied at an approved Art College or School for at least two years full-time, or four years part-time. As with National Certificates, the Colleges prepare the syllabuses and set and mark the examinations, subject to the approval and assessment of the Ministry, and course work as well as examination results is taken into consideration in making awards. The conditions for the award of the National Diploma in Design are similar. Candidates must be at least nineteen. If they have already secured the Intermediate Certificate the Diploma course lasts two years full-time; if not, the course lasts three years. Candidates for the Diploma must present either a single subject, known as a Special subject, or two subjects, one being a main subject and the other an additional subject. In each category the range is very wide; there are, for example, twenty-seven Special subjects, ranging from Book Production to Shoe Design, and from Embroidery to Stained Glass; and the lists of main and additional subjects are even longer.

Up to 1959 the responsibility for agricultural education provided by local education authorities was shared between the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Minister of Education; but from 1st April 1959 full responsibility was transferred to the Minister of Education. The provision is of two kinds: part-time courses, day and/or evening, in Colleges of Further Education and Technical Colleges, and full-time courses, ordinarily of one year's duration, in farm institutes,¹ of which in 1959 there were thirty-six provided by L.E.A.s. The institutes give a basic theoretical and practical course designed for young people 'aiming at work of special responsibility in agriculture and, in some cases, horticulture, whether as farmers or growers on their own account or in supervisory or specialist paid employment'.² The courses are mainly resi-

¹ Various described as "Institute of Agriculture", "Institute of Agriculture and Horticulture", "School of Agriculture", etc.

² *Full-time Agricultural Education in England and Wales*. Ministry of Agriculture pamphlet issued annually. Obtainable free from the Ministry.

dential, and it is ordinarily a condition of acceptance into one that the candidate shall have spent at least one year in employment or training on the land.

To advise the Minister of Education about all aspects of vocational education there are in England nine Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education; in Wales the Welsh Joint Education Committee undertakes this function. These Councils are voluntary bodies established and financed by the local education authorities in their regions. To co-ordinate their work, and to survey and advise upon national aspects of vocational education there is a National Advisory Council on Education for Industry and Commerce, appointed by the Minister.

Since 1947 the Minister of Education has offered annually Technical State Scholarships, tenable at Universities, University Colleges and Colleges of Further Education. These have always been intended for young people, ordinarily under the age of twenty, who are in employment; from 1958, when 225 scholarships were offered, applications have been considered only from candidates who, for the two previous years, have been engaged in part-time study at an establishment for Further Education, or have been following a course leading to a National Diploma, and who have not got further than the first years of a H.N.C. course.

Adult Education

Non-vocational education for adults, in classes organized for formal instruction, is provided by:

1. Local Education Authorities.
2. 'Responsible Bodies', that is, bodies recognized for grant by the Ministry of Education as being "responsible for the provision of liberal education for adults". A 'Responsible Body' must by Regulation¹ be (i) a University, or (ii) a national association principally devoted to promoting liberal adult education, or (iii) a joint body representative of

¹ The *Further Education (Grant) Regulations*, 1959. (S.I. 1959, No. 394.) Regulation 19.

universities, national associations as above, and L.E.A.s, and approved by the Minister of Education.

3. H.M. Forces.

4. Voluntary bodies, other than 'Responsible Bodies'.

1. Local education authorities provide non-vocational education for adults in Colleges of Further Education, in the twenty-nine residential Colleges or Centres of Adult Education which they maintain or assist, and in numerous short courses and conferences which they organize.

2. Among the 'Responsible Bodies' are all the Universities in England and Wales, which exercise this function through a Department of Extra-Mural Studies or, in five cases,¹ a Department of Adult Education. Working in close co-operation with the Universities, and organizing jointly with them numerous classes, is the Workers' Educational Association (W.E.A.), a federation of some 3,000 organizations and 50,000 individual members. Each of the twenty-one districts of the W.E.A. is recognized by the Minister of Education as a 'Responsible Body'. Between them the Universities and the W.E.A. provide all but a small amount of the adult education given by 'Responsible Bodies'.² Each (independently or jointly) offers single lectures, terminal courses (not fewer than ten meetings), sessional courses (lasting one educational year, with not fewer than twenty meetings), three-year tutorial courses (which must be provided by a University), and other courses of various lengths, including vacation courses, the last usually residential, and sometimes conducted abroad. Most lectures and courses are open to the general public, but in recent years the W.E.A. in particular has arranged, at the request of industrial and other organizations, an increasing number of courses solely for the members of such bodies. All lecture courses include time during each meeting for discussion

¹ Bristol, Hull, Leicester, Nottingham, Southampton.

² Other Responsible Bodies are the Cornwall Adult Education Joint Committee, the Devon Joint Adult Education Committee, the Educational Centres Association, the Seafarers Education Service, and the University of Wales Council of Music.

of the lecture by members of the audience. A signally distinguished course, launched by the W.E.A. in 1907, and now usually offered jointly by the University and the W.E.A. is the three-year 'Tutorial Class'; in this a select band of students studies intensively, at or near University standard, a subject of their choice through three consecutive winter sessions, meeting at least twenty-four times each session.

Every Responsible Body has to submit yearly the programme it proposes to provide, and an estimate of its cost, to the Minister of Education, who pays a direct grant towards the total teaching costs involved by the programme as he approves it. In determining the amount of grant the Minister takes into consideration the standards of the courses proposed, the fees to be paid by the students, the needs of the area concerned, and the provision made by other bodies in that area.

3. The Admiralty, the War Office, and the Air Ministry all include adult education in the educational services they provide for members of H.M. Forces. Each works in co-operation with the Universities, the W.E.A. and other voluntary bodies, and the local education authorities, all of which admit members of the Forces to courses open to the general public, and if required arrange special courses for them. The Services Departments also maintain a scheme of correspondence courses for members of the Forces unable to attend organized courses in person; and while many of these correspondence courses are taken for vocational purposes, not all need be or are.

A Central Committee for Adult Education in H.M. Forces, representative of the Service Departments, the Universities, L.E.A.s, and voluntary bodies, gives advice and provides an administrative centre for all Forces education.

4. The number and variety of other voluntary bodies providing opportunities for liberal adult education are almost infinite; they include learned societies, associations promoting appreciation of the arts, trade unions, youth organizations and the Churches.

A means of consultation and co-operation between all bodies engaged in adult education is provided by the National Institute

of Adult Education (England and Wales), which gives information and advice, conducts investigations, organizes conferences, maintains a library, publishes a directory of adult education organizations, and establishes contacts with overseas bodies engaged in Adult Education. The Institute is supported by membership fees, an annual grant from the Ministry of Education, and such profits as result from its publications. Most Universities and L.E.A.s are corporate members of the Institute.

The Service of Youth

The provision of organized educational, social, and recreative facilities for young people during their leisure hours was begun on a national scale by voluntary effort in the second half of the nineteenth century, and up to the outbreak of the Second World War continued to be made very largely by voluntary organizations receiving little or no aid from public funds. But in November 1939 the British Government, remembering how through neglect youth had deteriorated during the First World War, decided¹ that 'the Board of Education shall undertake a direct responsibility for youth welfare', and proposed a 'close association of local education authorities and voluntary bodies in full partnership in a common enterprise'. They set up a National Youth Committee, and urged all local education authorities for Higher Education² to set up local Youth Committees 'to formulate an ordered policy' in their areas. The Youth Committees were not themselves to organize youth activities, but to advise their authorities how best they could help by (a) providing staff, office accommodation and clerical assistance, (b) making grants towards rent and upkeep of buildings, and provision and maintenance of equipment, and (c) providing instructors for physical recreation and crafts. All such aid would rank for 50 per cent grant from the Board of Education. This partnership came into being, and though

¹ See Board of Education *Circular* 1486, dated November 27, 1939.

² That is, the County and County Borough Councils.

the details of the financial and administrative arrangements have been modified from time to time, it persists today on substantially the same basis.

By the Education Act, 1944, the Service of Youth became statutorily a part of Further Education, being covered by the requirement of Section 41(b) that it is part of the duty of the local education authority to secure the provision of adequate facilities for 'leisure-time occupation' in 'organized cultural training and recreative activities. . . .'

The central direction of the Youth Service remains with the Ministry of Education, and its local administration with the local education authorities. There is, in the Further Education branch of the Ministry, a division for Youth Service. This advises the Minister on policy, and on the making of grants to voluntary bodies. Until 1st April 1959, local education authorities received from the Minister grants for recognized expenditure on the Youth Service exactly as they did for expenditure on any other part of the statutory system of education; now, they make grants from the Block Grant paid them by the Government. The Minister pays direct grant to recognized national voluntary youth organizations in aid of their headquarters administration. Only in exceptional cases does the Minister make grants to local units of voluntary organizations.

The local education authorities all have properly constituted Youth Committees, representative of the authority, of any minor local authorities within the area, of the voluntary youth organizations, the teachers, the religious denominations, the public health and youth employment services, and of the local civic and industrial life. The Youth Committee is normally a main sub-committee of the Education Committee. Most authorities employ a full-time Youth Officer, who in large or heavily populated areas will have one or more assistant officers. His business is to encourage the development of youth work generally throughout the area, supervise the work in any youth centres the authority may set up, maintain contact with the voluntary organizations, discussing with them and putting before his committee their applications for financial aid, secure

instructors for classes in both maintained and voluntary clubs and centres, recruit youth leaders and arrange training courses for them.

The main bodies providing the Service of Youth can be grouped as follows:

- (a) Local Education Authorities.
- (b) Uniformed Voluntary Organizations.
- (c) Non-uniformed 'club' organizations providing a general range of facilities.
- (d) Non-uniformed club organizations with a bias towards specific activities.

(a) Many local education authorities run their own youth centres. These are normally accommodated in school premises, though occasionally they have their own building. London, which was making provision for recreative activities for youth long before 1939, has an extensive system of Recreative Evening Institutes for young men and women, and several other large authorities make comparable provision. Youth centres maintained by local education authorities provide facilities for indoor games and hobbies, physical training, music, art, and drama, and for instruction in organized classes. They do not usually insist upon formal membership; boys and girls are free to come and go as they please, except that if they have signed up for an instructional class they are expected to complete the course. But even in this case no compulsion is exercised.

- (b) The largest uniformed associations are:

The Boy Scouts' Association.

The Girl Guides.

The Boys' Brigade.

Others include:

The Church Lads' Brigade.

The Girls' Life Brigade.

British Red Cross, Junior Section.

St. John Ambulance Brigade.

The Boy Scouts' and the Girl Guides' Associations are so well known that it is unnecessary to describe here their aims and

methods. Each has a junior section for children aged eight to eleven: the Wolf Cubs for boys, and the Brownies for girls; and a senior section for members above, approximately, the age of fifteen: Rover Scouts and Rangers respectively.

The Boys' Brigade, like the Scouts and Guides, has been widely copied overseas; it has branches in all the British Dominions, many British colonies, and Denmark and Holland among foreign countries. Its main strength, however, is in the British Isles, where it has a membership of over 100,000 officers and boys organized in battalions and companies. The oldest uniformed voluntary organization for boys, founded in 1883 by Mr. W. A. (later Sir William) Smith, it has consistently pursued the aim laid down by the Founders:

The advancement of Christ's Kingdom among Boys, and the promotion of habits of Obedience, Reverence, Discipline, Self-Respect, and all that tends towards a true Christian Manliness.

(c) The largest non-uniformed associations are:

The National Association of Mixed Clubs and Girls Clubs (N.A.M.C. & G.C.).

The National Association of Boys' Clubs (N.A.B.C.).

Y.M.C.A., Boys' Work Section.

Y.W.C.A.

Girls' Friendly Society.

Girls' Guildry.

(d) Associations with bias include:

National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs.

Co-operative Youth.

Welsh League of Youth (*Urdd Cymru*).

All these voluntary associations are represented on the Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organizations (S.C.N.V.Y.O.), a body which exists to promote and sustain the interests of all, and in particular to present their views to the Ministry of Education. There are also similarly representative regional Standing Conferences.

The service of youth has not, in the opinion of many people,

received in recent years as much support from public funds as the value of its work deserves. 'Our Welfare State,' declares Professor W. O. Lester Smith,¹ 'has not so far given much attention to the cultural and social needs of its citizens: the emphasis has been on material necessities, on the standard of living rather than on the quality of life.' This, many people feel, is particularly true of the Service of Youth. Consequently, as the same author suggests,² 'during these post-war years the Youth Service has lost much of the force and drive that characterized it during its initial period.' There is ground for his criticism; as he points out, the Ministry of Education's Annual Report for 1952 recorded that 'the further restrictions on financial expenditure and on building work virtually called a halt to all new developments in the Youth Service'. In 1958 the Ministry had to defend itself against the charge, made by the Select Committee on Estimates, of starving the Youth Service. 'Such parsimony,' says Lester Smith, 'is just bleak tragedy . . . for it is the experimental, the adventurous, the imaginative enterprises that appeal to some of the brightest spirits among our young people.'

But lack of money is not the sole, nor even conceivably the worst, handicap; the Youth Service as a whole suffers from lack of leaders. The causes of this are not at all clear, but the principal are probably the great expansion of the Service, the tendency to expect social services to be provided by professionals paid by the State, and the increasingly exacting nature of preparation for a career.

In February 1960 a committee appointed in 1958 by the Minister of Education (the 'Albemarle' Committee; Chairman, the Countess of Albemarle) to review the contribution which the Youth Service could make presented a Report³ which expressed incisively and pungently the public unease felt about the neglect of this Service, and called upon the Minister to initiate a generously conceived ten-year develop-

¹ *Education: An Introductory Survey*. Penguin Books, 1957. page 213.

² *Ibid.* page 85.

³ *The Youth Service in England and Wales* (Cmld. 929). H.M.S.O., 1960.

ment plan. The Committee's recommendations were accepted by the Government with almost startling alacrity; it remains as yet to be seen whether effective action will be comparably swift.

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CHAPTER 10

University Education

IN 1960¹ there were in England and Wales seventeen Universities, and one separate University College, as under.

	FOUNDED
Oxford	Twelfth century
Cambridge	Early thirteenth century
Durham	1832
London	1836
Victoria University of Manchester	1880 ²
Wales	1893
Birmingham	1900
Liverpool	1903
Leeds	1904
Sheffield	1905
Bristol	1909
Reading	1926
Nottingham	1948
Southampton	1952
Hull	1954
Exeter	1955
Leicester	1957
University College of North Staffordshire	1949

¹ It is necessary to specify a year. Since 1945 the Universities have been very largely expanded, and this expansion is continuing. Among other measures taken, five University Colleges were made full Universities in the decade preceding 1958. In that year proposals for a University College of Sussex, at Brighton, received favourable official consideration and in 1960 proposals from Norwich and York.

² As a federal University, which it remained (Leeds and Liverpool being among its constituent Colleges) until 1903; then it was granted a new charter reconstituting it as a unitary University.¹

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are combinations of autonomous collegiate societies acting together, under statutes, for purposes of university work. In 1960 there were thirty-one Colleges at Oxford and twenty-four at Cambridge. Durham University is a federation of two 'Divisions', located respectively at Durham and Newcastle-upon-Tyne. The Durham Division is also organized on the collegiate pattern (it was originally modelled on Oxford), with eight of its Halls of Residence having the status of Colleges of the University. London University is a federation of a great number of various institutions: in 1958 it comprised fourteen non-medical 'Schools of the University' (these included the two Colleges, University (1826) and King's (1829), which gave it birth), thirteen undergraduate and seventeen post-graduate medical and dental schools, ten specialist institutes for advanced studies, and eighteen institutions having teachers recognized by the University for the purpose of preparing students for its internal degrees. The University of Wales is a federation of four colleges, located at Aberystwyth in central Wales, Bangor in north Wales, Cardiff and Swansea in south Wales; the Welsh National School of Medicine at Cardiff has the status of 'School of the University'. The other Universities have a unitary organization, though five¹ have attached to them associated or affiliated colleges or other institutions.

The University College of North Staffordshire is an experimental venture on a different pattern from that of any other university institution in the country. Its most distinctive features are the length and nature of its undergraduate course, and the fact that it is fully residential, for staff as well as students. The undergraduate course lasts four years instead of the normal three. All undergraduate students must, during their first year, pursue a common course of general education covering Western civilization and the natural and social sciences. During the following three years of the course they may not specialize exclusively in one or two subjects, but must spread their

¹ Bristol, Leicester, Liverpool, Manchester, and Reading. Two of Durham's affiliated Colleges are in British Colonies.

studies over four, which must include humane and scientific subjects. Because of this unique pattern of studies the College is empowered to grant its own Bachelor's degree – a privilege never before granted to a University College in the United Kingdom.

University Government

The Universities are independent and self-governing bodies, responsible to no Government department; this despite the fact that nowadays more than three-quarters of their income comes from public funds (most of this from the British Treasury), and an even greater proportion of their expenditure on capital projects. At Oxford and Cambridge the government of the University (as distinct from that of the Colleges) is completely in the hands of members of the University. At Oxford the ultimate legislative body is 'Convocation', which comprises all holders of the M.A. and certain higher degrees whose names are on the University's books. But Convocation meets only rarely; its functions are restricted to authorizing the affixing of the University seal, conferring honorary degrees, and making a final decision about legislation carried by the vote of not less than two-thirds of the members present in the 'Congregation of the University'. Congregation, on which sit the teaching and senior administrative staff of the University, enacts but does not initiate legislation; its function is to decide about measures submitted to it by the 'Hebdomadal Council', a body of some twenty-three persons, including the Chancellor (the titular Head of the University), the Vice-Chancellor (the executive Head), and eighteen members elected by Congregation. It is in the Hebdomadal Council that most University policy is shaped and executive decisions are taken. General supervision of teaching (except College teaching) and examinations is maintained by the 'General Board of the Faculties', and the organization of these matters by the Boards of the various Faculties. Financial administration is the responsibility of the 'Curators of the University Chest'.

At Cambridge the supreme legislative body is the 'Regent House', which comprises all members of the teaching and administrative staff of the University and of the Colleges holding an M.A. or higher degree. One of the functions of the Regent House is to elect the 'Council of the Senate', which is the corresponding body to the Oxford Hebdomadal Council, and like it the chief source of policy and executive action. The 'Senate', comprising all holders of the M.A. or higher degree, elects the Chancellor and can hear appeals from decisions of the Regent House, but otherwise has only formal duties. As at Oxford, there are a 'General Board of the Faculties' and Faculty Boards; and there are also 'Syndicates' in charge of other University affairs. Financial administration is the responsibility of a 'Financial Board'.

At both Oxford and Cambridge the Colleges are self-governing corporate bodies regulated by their own statutes, and having their own property and income. They do not receive any grants from the Treasury or other public funds. The government of a College is in the hands of a 'Master'¹ and a body of 'Fellows', whose number is fixed by the College statutes. The Colleges are not completely independent bodies: they cannot alter their statutes without the approval of both the University and the Queen in Council; they are bound by some University statutes, including those regulating elections to professorial Fellowships and to the presentation and auditing of accounts; and most Fellows are also members of the University staff and so subject to its rules.

The governmental machinery at other Universities is in many respects strikingly different from that at Oxford or Cambridge, but the really fundamental difference is that persons not holding University appointments form an important part in it. Many of these lay members are elected as representatives of outside bodies, including statutory bodies.

Except at London, where it is quite different from anywhere

¹ The most usual title, especially at Cambridge. President, Principal, Provost, Rector, Warden, and Dean are also used, and, in the case of one women's College at Cambridge, Mistress.

else, the pattern of government in the modern Universities is broadly similar, though there are many differences in detail. At London a body called the 'Court' controls the University's finances, and has charge of all its property, funds, and investments. The supreme governing and executive body for all academic matters is the 'Senate'. The London University Senate is strikingly differently constituted from the Senates of the other modern Universities in that it contains lay members as well as members of the academic staff, and that its members are appointed, not members by right of status. It functions largely through five standing committees, called councils: the academic council, the council for external students, the collegiate council, the council for extra-mural studies, and the University entrance and school examinations council. Another unique feature of the government of London University is the large part played in it by 'Convocation', a body comprising all graduates of the University who have applied for membership and paid the required fee. Convocation elects the Chancellor, appoints nearly one-third (seventeen out of fifty-five) of the members of Senate, and has the right to express to both Court and Senate its opinion about 'any matter relating to the University' – a right it has not infrequently exercised with telling effect.

At the other modern Universities the supreme governing body is the 'Court', a very large body which includes representatives of the local civic authorities, of the political, religious, social, educational, professional, industrial, and commercial life of its area, of the professorial and non-professorial staff of the University, and of other Universities. The Court meets ordinarily once a year only, to receive the annual report made to it by the Vice-Chancellor on the University's work and the financial accounts, and to appoint (or re-appoint) certain lay officers, such as the Pro-Chancellors (the Chancellor's deputies) and the Treasurer. The Court as a rule appoints the Chancellor, and in some Universities the Vice-Chancellor also. In these Universities the Vice-Chancellorship is a permanent appointment; this is another feature which distinguishes the govern-

ment of the modern Universities from that of Oxford, Cambridge and London, where the Vice-Chancellorship is held in rotation, for a period of two to four years, by senior members of the academic staff.

The chief executive body is the 'Council', a much smaller but still considerable body (its membership may exceed fifty) of lay and academic persons, the former mostly appointed either by the Court or by neighbouring local authorities or other bodies, the latter mostly by the University Senate. The Council administers the University's finances; it also actually makes the appointments to the academic staff (including, usually, that of Vice-Chancellor), though as a rule only by approving recommendations made by the Senate; and confirms (or on rare occasions rejects) changes in academic regulations submitted to it by the Senate. Though, as will be seen, ultimate control of academic matters lies with the Council, the effective decisions are made by the Senate. Cases have been known of disagreement between Senate and Council, but in general the confirmation by Council of recommendations by Senate is purely formal.

The Senate consists of the professors in the University and a small number of representatives of the non-professorial academic staff, with the Vice-Chancellor as *ex-officio* chairman. It receives reports and recommendations from the Faculty Boards – presented by their Deans, who are ordinarily senior professors serving in rotation for two or three years each – makes recommendations for appointments to the academic staff, and is responsible for the teaching and discipline of undergraduate students and for the approval of post-graduate studies and research projects.

Despite the differences in the structure of government in the Universities, one characteristic is common to all, and it is of fundamental importance: business flows upwards, not downwards as is the case in most industrial and commercial organizations. Policy does not originate in Council or Senate, and least of all in the Court. Academic policy originates in a Department or a Faculty Board, and is discussed thoroughly

in one or (usually) both of these places before being presented as a recommendation to Senate. Similarly, administrative and financial policy is thrashed out in a Standing Committee before being presented to Council. The rule is not absolute, especially in these days of rapid growth and development, but it is very nearly so, especially in respect of academic business. The Universities can justly claim that their system of government is one of the most democratic in the world, in that everyone concerned has opportunity to have his say about matters which affect him.¹

There is no body officially representative of the Universities as a whole. In recent years the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, on which sit all the Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities and University Colleges in Great Britain, has become increasingly recognized as their spokesman in consultations and negotiations between the British Universities and the British Government; but this Committee is not empowered to commit the Universities (or any single University) to accept any proposal or take any particular course of action. If the Committee feels that any act of policy is desirable, each Vice-Chancellor or Principal then has to attempt to persuade his University to feel the same.

The Association of University Teachers (A.U.T.), which is representative of teachers of all ranks in the Universities and University Colleges in Great Britain, has the right to negotiate with the Government about all matters affecting the professional rights of University teachers. The National Union of Students (N.U.S.) plays an active part in promoting the interests of student members of the Universities.

University Finance

In the academic year 1958-59 the income received for recurrent expenditure by the Universities of England and Wales was £44,704,104. The sources from which it came, and the pro-

¹ See Sir Eric Ashby, *Technology and the Academics* (Macmillan, 1958), for a clear and full exposition of this point.

portions, were approximately as given below. (The percentages relate to Great Britain, but those for England and Wales are not substantially different.)

Parliamentary Grants	69·7 per cent
Students' fees	11·0
Payments for research done by Universities	7·0
Endowments	3·4
Grants from local authorities	2·9
Donations and Subscriptions	0·9
Other sources	5·1
	100·0

The proportion received from public funds was even greater than this table suggests, because about three-quarters of the students had their fees paid, in whole or in part, by either the Ministry of Education or local education authorities.

It is not possible to indicate similarly percentages for capital expenditure, but it is safe to say that the proportion contributed by Parliamentary grants was larger than for recurrent expenditure. This represents a complete reversal of Government policy. Before the 1939-45 war grants by Parliament to the Universities for capital expenditure were rare, and were always made for special projects. Since the war grants for general University expansion have become a permanent feature, and have grown constantly larger. In 1955-56 the amount received by the British Universities was about £7m. By 1958 it had risen to £12m., and in that year the Government announced a four-year programme for 1960-63 of £60m., an average of £15m. a year.

University Grants Committee

Parliamentary grants to the British Universities are made through the agency of the University Grants Committee (U.G.C.). This committee was first appointed in 1919, "to inquire into the financial needs of University education in the

United Kingdom and to advise the Government as to the application of any grants that may be made by Parliament towards meeting them." Until 1943 it remained a small body, and its membership was restricted to persons not employed full-time by a University. In 1943 this restriction was abandoned, and the committee was enlarged to sixteen persons, exclusive of its secretaries, who are Civil Servants. The committee now consists mainly of persons in full-time University employment, but the local education authorities, the Grammar schools, and Further Education are also represented on it. It has a full-time salaried chairman, who so far has always come to the post after a distinguished career in University work. The other members give part-time service only, and are not paid. Representatives of Government Departments concerned with education – the Ministries of Education, Health, and Agriculture, and the Scottish Departments of Education, Health, and Agriculture – attend the committee's meetings as 'assessors', that is, as members without votes, one of whose duties is to report the proceedings to their various departments.

In 1946 the committee's terms of reference were considerably broadened and made more explicit, and in 1952 they were further amended. They now read:

To inquire into the financial needs of University education in Great Britain; to advise the Government as to the application of any grants made by Parliament towards meeting them; to collect, examine, and make available information relating to University education throughout the United Kingdom; and to assist, in consultation with the Universities and other bodies concerned, the preparation and execution of such plans for the development of the Universities as may from time to time be required in order to ensure that they are fully adequate to national needs.

The final words of that charge, it will be seen, imply a measure of Governmental direction of University development. When these terms of reference were announced there were people who feared that they might mean Governmental control. These fears have not been realized; the relations between the

Universities and the U.G.C. have remained extremely cordial. But there is no doubt that the trend of University development is today very considerably determined by Governmental decisions. These decisions are, however, taken in consultation with the Universities, and the system of co-operation with the Government through the U.G.C. has gained the admiration of many countries.

Members of the University Grants Committee make periodical visits to all the institutions on its grant list¹ to discuss with their representatives the development plans and financial needs of their Universities or Colleges. The U.G.C. holds periodical meetings with the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, and, if requested, meets representatives of professional associations such as the Association of University Teachers and the National Union of Students. Much of its detailed work is done by sub-committees composed of members of the main committee and members appointed from outside for reason of their knowledge and experience in the fields concerned. There are standing sub-committees on medical and dental education, science, technology, the social sciences, Oriental and African studies, Slavonic and East European studies, agricultural education and veterinary education. A salaried architect, and an architectural sub-committee consisting of members of the main committee, a representative of the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals, and representatives of the Ministry of Works, advise the committee on new building projects for which financial assistance from the Treasury is sought. *Ad hoc* sub-committees are also set up as need demands.

Parliamentary grants to the Universities for recurrent expenditure are agreed for five years at a time, though the actual grants are paid annually by the British Treasury. Every five years the Universities submit detailed estimates of their financial needs for the forthcoming quinquennium to the U.G.C. After scrutiny of these estimates the U.G.C. recommends to the Treasury a total amount which it recommends should be granted to the Universities during the quinquennium under

¹ That is, all the Universities and University Colleges in Great Britain.

survey. The Treasury is concerned with the total grant only; how this shall be divided between the Universities is decided by the U.G.C. in consultation with the individual Universities. A University is, in theory, under no obligation (except in the case of capital grants 'earmarked' for specific purposes) to spend its grant exactly as laid down in the detailed estimates previously discussed with the U.G.C. In practice, no significant departure would, however, be made unless this had been discussed with, and approved by, the U.G.C.

Until recently grants for capital expenditure were discussed in terms of individual projects. The Government's announcement of a £60m. programme for the years 1960-63 has, however, made block planning on a long-term pattern possible; and it may be that this procedure will become the normal one in future.

Academic Organization

For purposes of teaching, research, and examinations, the Universities¹ are divided into Faculties, which are subdivided into subject departments. In modern times the number of Faculties has tended to increase rapidly; in addition to the traditional Arts and Science (or Philosophy), Law, Theology, and Medicine, most Universities now have a Faculty of Engineering, and the range includes, for example, Metallurgy (Sheffield), Veterinary Science (Liverpool), Economics and Commerce (Leeds), Agriculture and Horticulture (Reading).

The head of a Faculty is the Dean, elected for a period of years from among the professors. (Occasionally a full-time permanent Dean of the Medical Faculty is appointed.) Most departments are headed by Professors; the other ranks in the academic staff are Readers, Senior Lecturers, Lecturers, and Assistant Lecturers. Attached to the academic staff are also Research Fellows and Research Assistants.

¹ At Oxford and Cambridge, which are primarily organized in Colleges, the Faculties more nearly approach to the Departments of other Universities.

The principal administrative officers are the Vice-Chancellor, who is also the academic Head, and is responsible for all aspects of University life, the Registrar (or Secretary), responsible for official business and records, and the Bursar, who administers the finances, and is responsible for the buildings and property of the University.

There are two main bodies of full-time students: undergraduates and post-graduates; in English Universities the former are in a large majority (in 1958-59 approximately seven to one). There is also a relatively small body (3,928 in 1958-59) following courses leading to non-graduate qualifications, most of which are called Diplomas.¹ All the Universities except Oxford and Cambridge have also part-time students; the total number in 1958-59 was 15,879.

The Universities have absolute rights over the admission, suspension, and expulsion of students, and similarly over the appointment and dismissal of academic staff. Before inserting a student's name *in matricula* (i.e. on the register), every University demands evidence that he is intellectually able enough to undertake the course he proposes and has reached a sufficiently high standard of attainment to embark upon it. For applicants for courses leading to first degrees capacity and attainments are judged by performance at either (a) an entrance examination conducted by the University concerned, or (b) an examination of equal or higher standard, success in which, provided stated conditions are satisfied, the University will accept in lieu of a pass in its own entrance examination.

In England and Wales the Universities have accepted success in any of the examinations conferring the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.) as exempting candidates from their own entrance examinations, subject to the following conditions agreed by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals in 1949:

¹ This figure does not include the graduates (about 3,185 in 1958-59) working for the Teacher's Certificate or Diploma in the University Departments of Education.

Applicants for entry to a University must:

- (a) Have obtained a pass in English Language¹ and in either four or five other subjects; and
- (b) These subjects must include (i) a language other than English, and (ii) either mathematics or an approved science; and
- (c) At least two of the subjects must be passed at the Advanced Level; and
- (d) Candidates who offer only four subjects in addition to English Language must pass at one and the same sitting in two subjects at the Advanced Level and in one other subject not related to the subjects at the Advanced Level.

Examinations comparable with the G.C.E. (e.g. the Scottish Senior Leaving Certificate) are accepted, with similar conditions. The foregoing are the minimum academic qualifications required. Where there is pressure of applicants the bare minimum may be insufficient to secure admittance, and departments ordinarily require that particular subjects shall have been passed, and at a specified level.

The qualifications required for entry into higher degree courses vary with the subject of study. English Universities recognize for this purpose all British degrees (and occasionally other qualifications) and some degrees awarded in other countries. The list of these is available at any British University.

Scholarships and Awards

"Few countries offer a richer variety than the United Kingdom of facilities for access to the highest forms of education."²

In the year 1958-59, 81·8 per cent of full-time University students in England and 92·4 per cent of those in Wales held scholarships, exhibitions, or other awards, from public or private funds, which provided wholly or in part for the payment

¹ London University waived this condition from the academic year 1957-58 onwards.

² *Commonwealth Universities Yearbook*, 1955, page 9.

of their tuition fees and other expenses. The great majority of these awards were made from public funds.

The main sources of financial assistance are:

1. Scholarships, exhibitions, and other awards made by Universities and Colleges of Universities from funds held in trust by them for this purpose. Some of these awards are 'open', that is, available for competition by all qualified candidates. Some are 'closed', that is, restricted to members of a particular school or geographical district. The value of these awards is ordinarily insufficient to meet all the holders' expenses of tuition and maintenance; to meet this situation, the Ministry of Education makes supplemental grants to holders of 'open' awards.

2. State scholarships awarded annually by the Ministry of Education. These are of four types:

(a) Awards made on the recommendations of the bodies which conduct the examinations for the General Certificate of Education. In 1958-59 up to 1850 of these scholarships were offered.

(b) Supplemental awards to holders of 'open' awards, as noted under (1) above.

(c) Technical State Scholarships, awarded to students in establishments of Further Education. In 1958-59 up to 225 of these scholarships were offered.

(d) State Scholarships for mature students (i.e. normally aged twenty-five or upwards). In 1958-59 up to thirty of these scholarships were offered.

In addition the Ministry of Education offers annually about 250 State Studentships for post-graduate study in arts subjects. Similar awards are made by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research (D.S.I.R.)¹ for post-graduate study in scientific or technological subjects.

The amount of financial assistance made to State Scholars varies according to the net incomes of (a) parents in the case of minors, or (b) the students themselves if over the age of

¹ D.S.I.R. is in the charge of a Research Council responsible to the Privy Council.

twenty-one and financially independent when their course begins. Maximum awards and income scales for assessing parental or student contributions are published periodically by the Ministry of Education. State Scholars above the limit of income eligible for grant receive a grant of £50 a year irrespective of their financial circumstances.

3. Awards made by local education authorities based on performance in G.C.E. supplemented by such other information as the authority sees fit to require. In 1958-59 about 17,500 new awards were made. As with State scholarships the financial value varies according to parental means; each authority draws up its own scale. The scales differ in detail, but not substantially, from the Ministry's.

The awards made by the Ministry of Education and the local education authorities are made under powers granted respectively by Sections 100 and 81 of the Education Act, 1944. Section 100 (c) reads:

The Minister shall by regulations¹ make provision: for the payment by him *for the purpose of enabling pupils to take advantage without hardship to themselves or their parents of any educational facilities available to them . . .* of sums by way of scholarships, bursaries, and other allowances in respect of pupils over compulsory school age, including pupils undergoing training as teachers.

Section 81 similarly states that:

Regulations² shall be made by the Minister *empowering* local education authorities, for the purpose of enabling pupils to take advantage without hardship to themselves or their parents of any educational facilities available to them . . .

. . . to grant scholarships, exhibitions bursaries and other allowances in respect of pupils over compulsory school age . . .

¹ See *The State Scholarships Regulations, 1951* (S.I. 1951, No. 1214). *Author's italics.*

² See *Scholarships and Other Benefits Regulations, 1945* (S.R. & O. 1945, No. 666). *Author's italics.*

University Life and Work

Before the 1939-45 war the newer Universities – the ‘civic’ Universities, as they are still frequently called – drew their students very largely from their immediate neighbourhoods. Nowadays, all the Universities are ‘National’ Universities in the sense that their students come from all over the country, though a fairly large local, or at least regional, minority is still to be found in most if not all of the modern Universities.

As a result, a far greater proportion of University students now live away from home during term-time. The proportion living at home has been falling ever since the war; by 1958-59 it had dropped to 23·8 per cent. The others live either in Colleges and Halls of Residence, or in lodgings. Despite much post-war building and expansion of Halls of Residence (and to a lesser extent of Colleges) the proportion of students thus accommodated has not greatly increased (in 1958-59 it was 26·6 per cent), though the actual number is much larger. Much the biggest proportion of students (49·6 per cent in 1958-59) live in lodgings; and the proportion has steadily increased since the war.

These are aggregate proportions; individual Universities vary greatly. The University College of North Staffordshire accommodates practically all its students in Halls of Residence and Hull University almost all; on the other hand, the Manchester College of Science and Technology had in 1958-59 only 6·1 per cent in residence. The proportions are very different, too, for men and women; in 1958-59 respectively 22·5 and 39·1 per cent.

There are two fundamental differences between membership of an Oxford or Cambridge College and membership of a Hall of Residence in a modern University. First, a student in College is a member of a Society; and he remains a member of that Collegiate Society not only throughout his University career but throughout his life. While he is at the University he has the right – and in some particulars the duty – to participate

in the communal facilities of his College, even though he may be resident in lodgings (as he almost always will be during part of his University life). A student in a Hall of Residence is not a member of a Society having an independent existence. His stay in Hall may or may not cover the whole of his University career (usually it does not), but whenever he ceases to reside there he ceases ordinarily to be a member. Secondly, the Oxford and Cambridge Colleges have by their Statutes teaching and tutorial responsibilities for their students. Halls of Residence are not bound by such obligations, and, not being independent corporations, cannot undertake them, other than on an informal and voluntary basis, except by consent of the University.

It is a cardinal principle in British Universities that the main responsibility for the ordering of his life, and for progress in his studies, lies with the student. He is informed about the courses of lectures, the seminars, tutorials, laboratory classes, and so on which are available to him, and told at which, if any, of these his attendance is compulsory. In most cases it is not, but in all the effective decision at the time rests with him. True, a student who frequently fails to attend, especially at meetings specified as compulsory, and whose work is unsatisfactory, will soon be asked to explain why, and if he does not mend his ways may find himself in danger of being 'sent down', that is, of being expelled from the University. But ordinarily such cases are rare; the much more common cause of sending down is continued failure to pass the required examinations. According to unofficial (but probably fairly accurate) estimates about 12 per cent of students fail to secure a first degree; most of these fail to complete satisfactorily the first year's work of the undergraduate course.

Degrees and Diplomas

The structure of degrees awarded by the Universities of England and Wales is in details exceedingly complicated, but

in outline simple. There are four grades: Bachelor,¹ Master, Doctorate of Philosophy (Ph.D.), and senior Doctorate. Possession of a Bachelor's degree is almost always a prerequisite for proceeding to a higher degree, though there are exceptions to this rule. Two main types of course lead to a Bachelor's degree. These are called by various names: Special or Honours, and General or Pass or Ordinary. The fundamental distinction is that in an Honours or Special course the student concentrates upon one field of knowledge, in a General or Ordinary or Pass course he is required to study three or four subjects, but to a lower level.² The minimum period of study for a Bachelor's degree is three years; this is the general period for a Pass degree, but for some Honours degrees four years are required.

At Oxford a Bachelor can proceed to the degree of Master of Arts (M.A.), without further examination, after seven years from matriculating, and on payment of the statutory fee. At Cambridge the same rule obtains, but the period is six years from the end of the student's first term, provided at least two years have elapsed since his admission as Bachelor. Elsewhere the Master's degree can only be secured by following a prescribed or approved course of study for not less than one academic year and by satisfying the examiners in written examinations and/or presenting a thesis on an approved topic. The Ph.D. degree can only be secured by presenting a thesis embodying the results of original research; like the Master's, this degree cannot be obtained within one academic year of securing the Bachelor's degree, and it normally takes three or four years' full-time study. Both the Master's and the Ph.D. degrees can ordinarily be secured by either full-time or part-time study. Senior Doctorates – e.g. D.Litt., D.Sc., D.D., LL.D. – are ordinarily awarded to distinguished scholars who have made significant contributions to knowledge in their particular fields of study.

¹ One or two Bachelor's degrees, e.g. Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) at Cambridge, and Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.) at Oxford, are higher degrees.

² In examinations for General degrees candidates may be awarded 'honours'.

London is unique among British Universities in having a complete structure of 'external' degrees as well as a normal one of 'internal' degrees. These external degrees can be secured by students living anywhere, without attendance at the University, by passing the required examinations at a centre approved by the University. This structure, which dates from 1858, came into being originally because of the impossibility, due to the conflicting statutes of its constituent members, of making London a teaching University, and of the consequent necessity (if there was to be a University of London) of restricting its function to that of an examining body. By one of the happiest ironies of history this arrangement, born of dire necessity, has been (and still is) of the greatest value in assisting institutions of higher education throughout the British Commonwealth and Empire to achieve full University status. By following the London University degree courses and taking the London examinations they establish academic standards which justify the granting of a University charter. All the University Colleges in England and Wales, except North Staffordshire, many of those in the Dominions overseas, and all in the Colonies and Protectorates have followed (or are following) this route. Since 1945 London has undertaken 'special' arrangements with aspiring University Colleges at home and overseas whereby the College shares with London the framing of its own syllabuses and the marking of its own degree examinations during some years before applying for a University Charter.

Social and Recreative Activities

At all the Universities opportunities are available for participating in a very wide range of cultural, social, and recreative activities. A few of these opportunities will be for staff alone, and perhaps rather more will be joint staff and student enterprises, but the great majority will be primarily (and in some cases, wholly, as, for instance, athletic games and sports) for students only, and will be initiated and conducted by them.

Except at Oxford and Cambridge, where much of this side of University life is centred in the Colleges, the headquarters of these activities is the Students' Union, a building owned by the University but administered by the students, and the controlling body the Students' Representative Council (S.R.C.), elected annually from among themselves by the students, and headed by a student President. Ordinarily, all students become members of the Union automatically on entry into the University, and a fixed annual subscription is levied upon them throughout their stay. The proportion of students which makes habitual use of the Union by regular participation in club and society activities which it sponsors, varies; it is said in some Universities to be as low as one-third, but in most it is probably much larger. Not all University clubs and societies are sponsored by the Union; it is open to any group of students to band together for any lawful purpose, but in order to use Union facilities and to qualify for a grant from Union funds any student club or society must have its constitution approved by the S.R.C.

The Students' Union building contains a hall (or halls) for meetings, concerts, and stage plays, committee and games rooms, and usually a refectory, managed by the S.R.C. All Universities provide playing fields, sometimes extensive, most have a gymnasium, and some swimming-baths. Since 1945 many Universities have developed Student Health Services, staffed by full-time doctors and nurses, and in some cases giving psychological as well as medical assistance. Students are normally required to register with the Student Health Service.

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(All from H.M. Stationery Office.)

CHAPTER II

The Training
of Teachers

Because of the large expansion of training facilities under way at the time of writing, and the introduction of the three-year training college course from September 1960, much in this chapter may shortly require substantial revision.

THE responsibility for ensuring that there is a sufficient number of trained teachers to staff the statutory system of public education lies with the Minister of Education. Section 62 of the Education Act, 1944, lays down that he shall:

make such arrangements as he considers expedient for securing that there shall be available sufficient facilities for the training of teachers . . . and accordingly, he . . . may give to any local education authority such directions as he thinks necessary requiring them to establish, maintain, or assist any training college or other institution or to provide or assist the provision of any other facilities specified in the direction.

The responsibility for securing that the content and standard of teacher training are sufficiently good lies with the Universities. This is a new departure, dating only from 1947. Following a recommendation made by the McNair Report¹ in 1944, all the Universities, with one exception (Cambridge), have accepted this responsibility. Each is responsible for all the training within a given geographical area. There are seventeen areas. The University College of North Staffordshire has a University Education Department in which graduate students are trained, but as yet no area for which it is responsible.

¹ *Teachers and Youth Leaders*. H.M. Stationery Office, 1944.

In each of the sixteen university areas the responsible University has established within itself an Institute of Education.¹ This is an integral part of the University, and its general function is (to quote from the Sheffield University ordinance): to co-ordinate and promote the training of teachers and others intending to engage in educational work and to encourage further study and research in education.

The governing body of each Institute is representative of the University (whose Vice-Chancellor is *ex officio* chairman), and of the Training Institutions and the local education authorities in the area. Representatives of the Ministry of Education attend as 'assessors', and in some areas teachers are included as co-opted members. Though the University of Cambridge has not undertaken responsibility for the Cambridge Institute it is represented on the governing body.

The areas for which Institutes are responsible vary greatly in size, population, and number of Member Institutions. In the London area there are over thirty training establishments. But Oxford has only four, and Hull and Exeter have each only three.

All the teacher training establishments in an area are constituent members of the Institute (or School) of Education. There are two main types of training establishments: University Education Departments and Training Colleges. The former accept only University graduates; the latter do not refuse admission to graduates, but are primarily concerned with the training of non-graduates. In a University Education Department the training lasts one academic year, and is devoted solely to professional training. Training Colleges are of two types: general and specialist. In the general colleges the normal course lasts three years (for mature students it may be shortened to two), and consists of personal education and professional training, pursued concurrently. There are three main types of specialist colleges: for women teachers of physical education, women teachers of housecraft, and for men and women

¹ In the Universities of Manchester and Wales called a School of Education.

teachers of technical subjects. In the first two of these the course lasts for three years; in the third it lasts for one year only. Specialist teachers of art are given professional training in Colleges of Art recognized for the purpose; their course lasts for one year. Two colleges, Bretton Hall in Yorkshire and Trent Park in Hertfordshire, though officially 'general' Colleges, are, in fact highly specialized in the fields of art, drama, and music.

In England and Wales there were in 1960:¹

24 University Departments of Education.

116 General Colleges.

15 Specialist three-year Colleges for Housecraft.

7 Specialist three-year Colleges for Physical Education.

3 Specialist one-year Colleges for Technical Education.

16 Colleges of Art with Departments approved for the professional training of Art Teachers.

University Departments of Education are provided, maintained, and staffed by their Universities. Training Colleges are provided and maintained by local education authorities or by voluntary bodies. Most of the voluntary Colleges are provided by bodies attached to either the Church of England or the Roman Catholic Church. In 1958 there were ninety-two L.E.A. Colleges, twenty-four Church of England, twelve Roman Catholic, six undenominational, two Methodist, two Church in Wales, and three provided by other bodies.

Colleges provided by local education authorities are financed from a 'pool' to which all authorities contribute sums in proportion to the average numbers of Primary and Secondary school pupils in their areas.

Voluntary Colleges are grant-aided by the Minister of Education in respect of both maintenance and capital expenditure.² In respect of maintenance they receive:

Tuition grant and, in respect of resident students, boarding grant, equal to the cost, as approved by him, of providing

¹ The large expansion programme launched in 1958 will cause changes in this table up to 1964, and probably in succeeding years.

² See *Training of Teachers (Grant) Regulations, 1959* (S.I. 1959, No. 396).

for the tuition or board (as the case may be) of recognized students . . . less students fees. . . .

In respect of capital expenditure they could receive, up to 1959, a grant not exceeding 50 per cent towards expenditure amounting to £500 or more on

- (a) the improvement, extension or replacement of the land or buildings of the College, and
- (b) the provision of furniture and equipment necessitated by (a).

To qualify for such capital grant a College must have been established before 1st February 1945. During the present period of expansion (at the time of writing, until 30th September 1961), Colleges may receive grant up to 75 per cent on enlargements made to increase the facilities for training teachers. This 75 per cent grant will also be available for establishing new colleges.

The Minister has the power to lay down various conditions for the payment of grant for capital expenditure; for example, he may require that two or more Colleges shall be combined to secure more efficient provision of facilities for the training of teachers, and that Colleges shall provide the courses he specifies.

To University Education Departments and approved Art Schools at Universities the Minister may pay, in respect of recognized students, tuition grants and maintenance grants. These are assessed on parental income scales, except that for a qualified teacher seconded on salary the tuition grant is paid in full by the Minister, but no maintenance grant.

Admission of Students

To be admitted into a training establishment as a 'recognized' student (i.e. recognized for purposes of grant) a candidate must:

- (a) Be a British subject ordinarily resident in England or Wales, unless an exception is allowed.¹

¹ In recent years a considerable number of exceptions has been allowed, especially to admit students from British colonies and protectorates.

(b) Satisfy the authorities as to character, probable suitability for teaching, health and physical capacity.

(c) Be of prescribed age, i.e. for a Training College Course be not less than eighteen on 1st October in the year for which admission is sought, for Technical Training College not less than twenty-five on same date (though exceptions may be allowed to this).

(d) Have passed an approved examination, at or above the required standard, unless the Minister allows an exception.¹ For normal entry into a three-year course the minimum standard is five passes at O level G.C.E., or three subjects at O level and one other at A level, or two subjects at O level and two other at A, or three subjects at A level and evidence that other subjects have been studied beyond the age of sixteen; or similar success in comparable examinations. For Art School, students' specialist qualifications are also required, and for entry into a Technical Training College suitable experience in employment.

It must be emphasized that these are *minimum* qualifications. For entry into popular Colleges the bare minimum has rarely been sufficient, and for years the general standard has been rising.

Courses

(a) The one-year course for graduates at a University Education Department is strictly a course of professional training. It consists of instruction in the principles and practice of education, and in one or more periods of practical teaching in schools, amounting in the aggregate to some sixty days. Many University Education Departments send their students to a school for a whole term.

(b) The three-year course in a Training College consists of continued general education and professional training. The

¹ The teachers' professional associations have always deprecated such exceptional admissions, and succeeded in keeping them down to a very small proportion of the total admissions.

latter comprises instruction in principles and practice of education (which may include health education), and several periods of practical teaching in schools – amounting in the aggregate to some 120 days. For personal education the student normally studies one or two subjects of his own choice.

(c) The three-year course in a Specialist College similarly includes instruction in the principles and practice of education, and periods of teaching practice. In addition to the specialist subjects required, every student takes a course in English Language lasting normally two years. In some colleges one other subject, general or specialist, may be taken.

Qualification

Students are tested by written examinations, taken at the end of the course, or by continuous assessment, or by a combination of these two methods. In either case the testing is done by internal examiners supervised by external examiners. The teacher's certificate is awarded by the Institute (or School) of Education. The Institute sends the list of those to whom it has granted the certificate to the Minister, who grants them the status of Qualified Teacher.

Students in University Education Departments are awarded by their Universities a Diploma or Graduate Certificate in Education. Possession of this entitles the holder to the Teacher's Certificate. A rather higher standard is ordinarily demanded for the University award than for the Teacher's Certificate: it is therefore possible for a University Education Department student to gain the Teacher's Certificate yet fail to secure the Diploma or Graduate Certificate.

Over half of the Training Colleges provide also various 'Supplementary' specialist courses, most of one year's duration, to qualified teachers, and most offer shortened versions of the three-year course to students of greater age and more mature experience than those entering college straight from school.

All the University Education Departments, Technical Training Colleges and Colleges of Art are co-educational. Of the

general Colleges only sixteen¹ were in 1958 co-educational. Many more are planned in the expansion now under way. The Physical Education and Domestic Science Colleges are all single-sex.

Almost all the Training Colleges are residential but many admit also non-residential students, and Day Training Colleges are being established. The University Education Departments share the residential facilities provided by their Universities. The Colleges of Art are non-residential.

In 1958-59 there were about 3,100 students in University Education Departments, about 25,000 in two-year colleges, about 2,400 in Housecraft Colleges, 1,200 in Physical Education Colleges and 450 in Technical Training Colleges. The total number increases every year.

Staffing

Staffs of University Education Departments are mainly recruited from two sources: the Universities, from whom senior members are usually drawn, and Secondary (mainly Grammar) schools. A University Education Department is headed by a Professor of Education (except at Oxford), who will have under him senior lecturers, lecturers, and assistant lecturers.

Training College staffs are now recruited almost exclusively from practising teachers. Members of Technical Training College staffs must also have had appropriate industrial, commercial, or professional experience. There are five grades of staff: lecturer, senior lecturer, principal lecturer, deputy principal, and principal. The ratio of staff to students is generally about one to eleven.

Instruction in both U.E.D.s and Colleges is by lecture, demonstration, seminar, tutorial group, private study, observation and teaching practice in schools. U.E.D. students share the social amenities and extra-curricular activities of their University. Training Colleges offer a wide range of extra-curricular

¹By the 1960-61 session this number had been more than doubled.

activities—physical, cultural, and recreative—chiefly organized by the students.

Further Training

It is now accepted that a teacher's training is not complete when he leaves U.E.D. or College, but no provision is made to ensure that all teachers receive further training. Short refresher courses for practising teachers are offered by the Ministry of Education, the local education authorities, Institutes of Education, teachers' professional organizations, and other bodies. Longer full-time courses (usually of one year's duration), and part-time courses extending over two or three years, leading to named qualifications are offered by Institutes of Education; for the full-time courses teachers may be seconded on full salary. Schemes of interchange for a period of one year operate between the United Kingdom and the United States, and between the United Kingdom and the English-speaking British Dominions. Teachers are also occasionally granted leave on salary for specified pieces of study or research.

To advise the Minister on all matters concerning the supply and training of teachers there is a National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers (N.A.C.T.S.T.). This is representative of the Universities, the Area Training Organizations, the Training Colleges, the local education authorities, and the teachers' professional associations, with officers of the Ministry of Education and of H.M. Inspectorate.

For further reading and reference

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A Great Partnership

REFERENCE has been made earlier in this book to the spirit of co-operation which exists between the centre and the localities, and between statutory and voluntary bodies, in the planning, provision, and maintenance of the public system of education. The point cannot be made too often, and so I feel that it is only fitting to conclude this brief survey of the English educational system by attempting to show that in all its parts it is sustained by the idea and practice of partnership. In the final analysis, it is this spirit which makes the system work; were it to be abandoned an entirely different – and one would think much less happy – system would emerge.

The first, and probably the most important, example of partnership is that between the home and the school. This is almost entirely a growth of the present century, and it is not yet either so highly developed or so intimate as it could, or should, be. But very remarkable progress has been made, progress which, in fact, has amounted to a revolution in the relationships between parents and teachers.

In the early years of this century the gates to the yards of Public Elementary schools were almost invariably locked once the children were inside; and a permanent notice was often to be seen which said: "No parents allowed beyond this point." There was reason for the notice; almost the only parents who wished to gain admission were those who came to cause trouble – not infrequently to offer personal violence to a teacher. All that has completely gone; parents now are everywhere welcomed into the school, and when they come their almost invariable desire is to seek advice or to consult with the teachers about their children. School yard gates are still

occasionally to be found locked, but this is to guard young children against traffic dangers, not to keep parents out.

Numerous schools now have organized Parent-Teacher associations, which hold frequent meetings, to hear speakers on educational topics, for interchange of ideas, or simply to have a pleasant social evening together – with the opportunity for private and informal consultations between individual parents and teachers. P.T.A.s are probably more common in Primary than in Secondary schools, but are nevertheless to be found in large numbers in the latter. Much less common is the Parents' Association, whose exclusive title must not be taken to imply hostility to the teachers, or any desire to exclude them from its activities. It may have come into being simply because the Head Teacher, for reasons which appear sound to him, has been reluctant to take the initiative in forming a P.T.A. The usual reasons for such reluctance are fear that parents might wish to interfere with the internal organization of the school, fear that the P.T.A. might become dominated by active members of a political party, or fear that the association would fail to attract just those parents who stand in most need of the help it could give; the indifferent and apathetic parents who are always a problem for any school.

Both Parent-Teacher and Parents' Associations are often directly helpful to a school by providing it with amenities that are outside the local authority's budget or cannot immediately be provided from public funds: a new set of curtains for the school stage (or even the stage itself), a gramophone, vases for flowers, for example. Associations of both kinds also often provide helpers at school functions: speech days, athletic meetings, concerts, plays, and open days.

'Open Days' are a relatively new, but already exceedingly popular, feature of the English educational system. On an 'Open Day' the school is 'at home' to all parents and friends who care to visit it. Samples of the children's work in every branch of the school curriculum are on display – usually in lavish abundance – with teachers and children in every room to explain and demonstrate. Frequently programmes of phy-

sical education, dancing, music, and drama are staged by teachers and pupils, and some schools add also talks by teachers on their work, or by outside speakers on local or general educational progress.

Quite a few local education authorities expand the idea of the school 'Open Days' by holding periodically 'Education Weeks' during which all the schools in their areas are similarly 'At Home'; such 'weeks' usually offer, in addition to school displays and demonstrations, a series of public meetings addressed by speakers of local or national eminence. A growing number of authorities – but not yet a large enough one – is using also other means of explaining the schools to the parents; notably through pamphlets describing their aims and facilities, which are sent to parents whose children are about to enter Primary or Secondary school, or to leave the latter.

Parallel with the growth of co-operation between home and school, but preceding it in point of time, and probably its principal cause, there has taken place a transformation of the relationships between the child and his teacher. In 1900 it would have been true to say that, with rare exceptions, children hated school, and the relationship between teacher and pupil was that of driver and driven. Today it is equally true to say that – again, of course, with rare exceptions – children love school, and the relationship between pupil and teacher is that of fellow workers in a joint enterprise. It is, perhaps, hardly necessary to add that the relationships between teachers, and particularly those between head and assistants, have shown a similar trend; teachers could not have evoked a spirit of partnership between themselves and their pupils had they not previously developed this among themselves.

Contributing to the work of Primary and Secondary schools is a great host of people giving, voluntarily, the most varied services. At the outset it is pertinent to remind readers that all members of boards of managers and governors of schools, of divisional executive and local authority committees voluntarily give up leisure time to the performance of public duties; and in innumerable cases a very great deal of leisure time.

Admittedly, many of these people are – in part at least – moved to undertake such service by motives other than a purely disinterested desire to help the schools, and thus to advance the public weal; but that said, it must be added that a vast amount of zealous and disinterested work is done every year by them: and the schools would be much the poorer without it.

The same is true of the considerable number of persons who each year serve on committees and councils established to advise the Minister of Education, local education authorities, and teachers' and administrators' professional associations. None of the members of any of these committees or councils is ever paid for his services – and when allowance is made for travel and subsistence expenses, this is frequently inadequate to cover the actual expenditure involved! Membership of one of the Minister's standing advisory bodies, in particular, is necessarily restricted to persons holding (or recently retired from) responsible posts, is demanding in time, and frequently involves considerable travel.

Comparable with such people are those who serve on the governing boards and committees of the various autonomous national bodies set up to render specific services to the educational system: the National Institute of Adult Education, the National Foundation for Visual Aids, the National Foundation for Educational Research, and the University Grants Committee. And alongside these one can perhaps most appropriately mention a body which has for many years given most valuable service to the educational system, the School Broadcasting Council of the B.B.C.

These lists are far from being exhaustive. The schools daily receive aid, in the forms both of regular and occasional services, from the public library system, art galleries and museums, and increasingly from public undertakings and private industrial and commercial organizations.

One cannot pass from consideration of services given to the Primary and Secondary schools without particular mention of the part played by the religious denominations, and especially the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church.

Between them these bodies still provide well over one-third of the school buildings, and they share in the management or government of all these schools. But this is only part of the service they render, which ranges from the maintenance of diocesan Boards of Education to the nurture of voluntary societies promoting the study of aspects of religious education. The partnership between the Church and the State can still be, at moments, an uneasy one, but its continued existence is today never doubted save by rare extremists; and it is fair to say that it is as cordial and co-operative in England and Wales as in any country in the world – and much more so than in most.

In the field of Further Education the range and variety of co-operation between statutory and voluntary bodies are so large as to render detailed mention impossible in small space. They can, however, be broadly categorized under three heads: co-operation between industry (meaning all forms of gainful employment) and the education authorities in the promotion and organization of vocational education; co-operation between voluntary bodies and the education authorities in the promotion and provision of non-vocational adult education; and co-operation between voluntary bodies and the education authorities in the promotion and provision of educational, social, and recreative activities for adults and adolescents, and especially for the latter.

Finally, there exists a great deal of co-operation between the statutory bodies specifically concerned with education and those concerned with other parts of the national life. This co-operation takes place both at the centre and in the localities; by way of illustration it may perhaps suffice to point out that in the execution of his duty the Minister of Education is in constant consultation with his colleagues in charge of the Treasury, the Ministries of Health, Labour, Pensions, Agriculture, Housing and Local Government, and Town and Country Planning, the Board of Trade, the Foreign Office, the Admiralty, the War Office, and the Air Ministry.

In the concluding chapter of his book *Education in England*

Dr. W. P. Alexander exclaims:¹ "Here, then, is this national system involving, as we have stressed, continual co-operation at all levels." I would like to conclude on the same note, with the same emphasis. It is often said that the English educational system is unique. So is every other national system of education. Our uniqueness is probably most marked in its extreme dependence upon this great partnership between statutory authority and voluntary service.

¹ Page 136.

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